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COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

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Art. I.—THE MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY OF FRANCE IN 1844.*

A great and powerful nation like France, the soil of which extends over a vast territory, generally fertile, furnishes the means by which productive labor may be exerted, in a thousand different forms. From agricultural toil, which is the basis and support of all the others, to research into the most difficult arts, men occupy their energies and intelligence in the creation of various useful products. The daily exchange of those products between the members of the great political family, combines an immense, active trade; and that portion which is not consumed in the interior, becomes the source of another commerce, less considerable, but of an importance which cannot be despised. By it are developed the diversified ties which bind us to other civilized nations; and by it we carry, even to the most savage people, the benefits of advanced arts and knowledge. By exterior commerce, by the navigation which attends it, by the wealth which it procures, and by the powerful means which it places at our disposal, as a political state, we uphold the work that we have the right to claim.

The movement of external commerce consists in the exchange of those products which superabound among ourselves, after our own consumption is satisfied, for other products that we need. That movement has various phases, some of which we shall now indicate. Thus, it is of importance for the country which sells to a stranger an article that having had multifarious workmanship, has acquired a high price, that the worth should duly be appreciated, and that the products in return should be of superior value. Moreover, it is advantageous to bring out products which are adapted to the most numerous foreign consumers; although the article may be left in a state of relative mediocrity, or devoid of the perfection of which it is capable. Hence, the highest price must be obtained from the

*This highly interesting paper originally appeared in "*La Revue Des Deux Mondes*," of September, 1844, published at Paris. The present literal translation is from a copy of it transmitted to us by M. D. L. Rodet, the author.

stranger for the articles which may have cost but a moderate portion of capital and of effort.

The precious metals serve to measure and to enumerate value; wherefore a country must possess a sufficiency of them to facilitate every transaction in which necessity or caprice demands the actual use of them. When that ample supply exists, credit is placed as a substitute for the metal, and performs its office. This state is favorable to mercantile affairs, the transactions of which proceed without becoming onerous. Nevertheless, if the precious metals accumulate too much, the eqilibrium in the value of commercial articles is deranged, and a painful disturbance ensues, until the use or the exportation of the metals, as merchandise, has repaired the defect. On the contrary, if the precious metals are not sufficiently abundant, everything which tends to regain them is advantageous to the country.

At the end of the last century, the European governments, and above all, that of France, attaching an exaggreated importance to the precious metals, were busily occupied in discovering the *balance of commerce.* Some, even yet, are thus engaged. By minute and lengthened estimates, according to the commercial prices-current of all the merchandise, the entry or export of which has been verified, they would judge by the difference, what is the overplus, or *balance,* supplied on either side by the precious metals. But the *elements* of that work were so incomplete and defective, and so many accessory circumstances were omitted, that a real induction could not be made from it. Not that a balance of commerce does not exist, but it can be more felt than exactly estimated. To obtain it, there must be a company of explorers so large that their joint labor cannot be secured, and numberless modifications would intervene to alter the tables of figures which they compiled, however great might be their exactness.

Thus, a special commerce between two people might be engaged in, solely for the account of one party, who alone might receive the advantage, or sustain the loss. Then, follow the transport, freight, insurance, duties of export and import, everything which forms a large part of the value of merchandise, and which may be acquired by either of the commercial people. In fine, the banking trade, and the direct or indirect exchanges, public loans, and industrial skill, all at every movement, may change the results in reference to the exterior balance.

The government of a country exercises a vast influence over the results of labor and the exchanges that it makes. Without, by the duties, prohibitions, premiums, maritime laws, and commercial treaties. In the interior, by the imposts of every kind which it enacts, by the means of communication, and the monopolies and favors which are granted. The object is always to develope, and to educe labor; but are the means always adequate and felicitous? This is the topic which we now shall examine.

France has recently witnessed the exhibition of the principal products of our national industry. Strangers from all countries attended to parcipate in that show, and to join their acclamations with those of our fellow-citizens. The eager crowds daily manifested their liveliest admiration. The finest season of the year, an almost constantly favorable atmosphere, the festival in the midst of the operations, the briliancy and the selection of the objects displayed, all concurred to charm and entice the most wayward minds. Now, that excitement has ceased, that the

amased splendor and wealth are dispersed, the fascination gives place for reflection; and the mind is more free to yield itself to consideration upon the real or imaginary advantages which the repetition of industrial shows may have upon the country and the exhibitors.

Ten years ago, after the exhibition "FAIR," in 1834, we endeavored to estimate the industrial movement of France.* The *fetes* of July then were the occasion of the display, and the pretext upon which the object of internal policy was feigned. Regarding that which passed around us, we could not avoid a hasty inspection, of the tendencies of the country in the midst of the last vague agitations of the revolution, from which so short a space had separated us. Men and things were judged, as we then beheld them, and with so rigorous an impartiality, that, after a long period, we find not any change in our opinions. We examine the causes that éduced our first expositions, and which unexpectedly re-awakened them after an interruption of ten years. Then, in the purpose of more immediate utility, we endeavored to compare the proportion which our natural industry possesses in distant markets, with that which the industry of our rivals has attained, and we often deplore the infirmity of our means. Have we now arrived at the station where we may conquer the post to which we should aspire? Is our industry so unfolded to the world, as entered upon that solid and firm course which guarantees success? We fear that it is otherwise. We do not dispute the merit to which such brilliant rewards have been distributed. Upright judges, and honored for their intelligence, leave not room for doubt with any person. That which we are solicitous to investigate is this, the causes which retard us, and the future, which the direction impressed upon our labor reserves for us.

We may apply the name industry† to all the labor produced by the spirit of enterprise and study. Industry, on one side, touches agriculture, which is its first branch. On the other, it terminates in the fine arts, which it powerfully aids; and which, by guiding and illuminating agricultural pursuits, rewards them. The exhibition of the Elysian fields has thus circumscribed in those limits all which it was possible to transport and affix within them. Yet, it was necessary to restrict the choice upon that which was an invention or a manufacture; but, consequently, to give preference to that which required a concourse of men combining mutual aid. Such did the exhibition present, necessarily incomplete, but great, glittering, brilliant, and attracting towards it even those who doubted its utility.

Nothing is more disputable than the serious and real advantages of that exhibition. It is true, it procures a lively satisfaction to the ministers and grandees who had the direction of it, and its attendant honors. Their importance momentarily was increased; and how many occasions did it afford to create for themselves friends! For the prince, his family, and his suite, it was a reason of rejoicing, to become as if associated without embarrassment with all the mysteries and operations of the arts, which every one was so eager to explain, and which were the subjects of so many amiable and gracious words addressed to the exhibitors; words, the effect of which will never be lost, and the remembrance of which will be

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* *Revue des deux Mondes*, of September 15, 1834.

† "Industria est alacritas et studium in labore suscipiendo, urgendo, et preferendo." —*Cicero Ernesti.*

preciously retained in the cantons of France, whither they are carried! Then come the eager citizens around that which is spectacle and show, grouped together before the same objects which attracted not their regard in the shops of our walks and streets; and then the examiners, of whom some describe and other inspect the wonders shown.

Like a European fair, or an immense bazaar, the exhibition may subserve some kinds of articles, call to them attention when they have been neglected, and more easily acquire some consumers of them. Above all, it is useful to new manufacturers, by announcing their names; and the same cause retains the old manufacturers, who dare not to desert the field in which their rivals appear. But for all, how much time is wasted, and business neglected, and expense lost! The justice of the umpires, and the good will of authority truly grant medals and an honorable mention, which recommends the article to the public; but since nearly all are distinguished, and the careless world make no inquiry concerning the different grades, it follows that no one attains to any peculiar distinction. If any one receives a reward of the highest order, it is seldom that that person had not previously attained a rank sufficient to fix the regard of those in power. The condition of a useful manufacturer, therefore, appears to us not to depend in any degree upon the support of the exhibition; and if his material is formed with ability, in numberless cases the great day would be fatal to it.

We are not alone in the opinion that we now express; either the article sent, although of good quality, indicates no marked progress, and then it adds nothing to the reputation which the producer already enjoys, or the fabric is distinguished by some novel qualities. What follows? Perhaps the public will duly appreciate it; but the rivals of the producer, more competent and interested than the community, through envy, hasten to make known by what particular process the apparent perfection has been obtained. This lesson, thus given, profits them; and without any experience, or the expense of experiments, they at once find themselves on a level with those who preceded them. Then succeed the investigations of the umpires, whose research is pursued into the most minute details, so that they must know every thing, accurately to value it. At last, and not the least dangerous, is the exploration of the stranger, who attends, that he may learn by the comparison of so many objects collected together, and may carry away the result of our discoveries and labor.

Such is the perplexity of the French manufacturer. On one side are the praise and reward which attend him, vanity more or less satisfied, and the uncertain hope of new openings; and on the other, the expense, the forsaking of his business, and the almost certain communication to his rivals, of his own peculiar means for success. Can we then be surprised at the repugnance which so many enlightened manufacturers express at those exhibitions? For example, we need not marvel that the manufacturers of Lyons and Roubaix, sent only stuffs already before the public, worn out, so to speak, according to the report of *taste*. Would not their ruin follow the divulging of their actual products designed for the coming season? The industrious man who has invented a pleasing and attractive object for a purchaser, should be in possession of a temporary monopoly, during which the fashion will indemnify him for his labors, and which ceases as soon as the crowd of imitators divides with him the remunerations.

Those exhibitions might have been useful at the end of our first revolution, when it was desirable to encourage the country, and to exemplify that all the spirit of industry had not perished in the commotion. They may promote the views of the imperial chief, since he is permitted to discuss the merit of them. We believe that an exhibition, where, even at great expense, the products of foreign industry might be collected, if it less flattered our national self-love, would be an exhaustless source of emulation and instruction. In such a display, the attention would be only devoted to foreign industry and its products, with the research into its developments. We sometimes wish that the most advanced country, Britain, would determine to hold an assemblage like that which has just been dissolved in France; but we suppose that the Anglican manufacturers would not comply with the invitation. Each of them is willing to study his competitor, as they have done among us; but neither of them is willing to become the subject of examination.

A long peace, an increasing population, and a more rational application of human power to the agricultural and industrial arts, have universally augmented the mass of products destined to supply our national wants. Wealth is represented under every form of exchange; and credit consequently developing itself, daily educes new efforts. Enterprise has calculated the advantages which may be realized by labor in common, and under the direction of a single will. Whenever the artizan is not under the obligation of direct affinity with the consumer, he must withdraw, and give place to the manufacturer. There is scarcely any need of anticipation, unless for some special objects. Every where, and always ready, are found the articles that we need. The enlargement of manufactures diminishes the price of return; and the sudden desire promptly gratified, augments consumption, which often would not have occurred, if the wish had required discussion, with the uncertainty of being satisfied. Such is the course of all people, and important consequences flow from it.

Whatever may be the inventive and applied genius of its inhabitants, France has arrived to the perfect industry which her rivals have attained, only in a few, and those not the most essential objects. The things in which she excels all others, are those which depend upon that almost undefinable sentiment called taste; and those which can be aided by science, and in which her eminent men can guide. This department assuredly is beautiful; nevertheless, it is not that which in our relations with foreign nations can place on our side the balance of public wealth. The useful arts which are applied to the products necessary for all people, and among the most numerous classes of the various nations, are just those in which we remain inferior.

Doubtless we cannot consider it grievous that in France, generally, the price of workmanship in our fabrics is amply sufficient, so that a relative competency in agreement with our climate and the wants of life, is the lot of the laboring classes. Still it would be preferable, if the price of the product was higher, whatever disadvantage might result from it, that we might not behold in our country that settled wretchedness and debasement of our operations, which we witness in the neighboring countries. But workmenship is not the only elemant of production. The necessary machinery and implements, the motive agents, which already demand the

employment of previous tool-machines, all are too costly in France; and our progress is far from being equal to our wants.

The recent exhibition disclosed to us immense progress in the fabrication of the tool-machines which are destined for the production of materials more immediately used in workmanship. Why have those amendments been so slow? Why are they not more general and important? These are grave questions. During a long time, manufactures were not established, because there were no mechanicians to organize them at a moderate price. On the other part, large capitals must be buried in the mere creation of mechanical factories, of which light and uncertain demands, would not incite the establishment. What a variety of models, materials, and operations, must be collected, before they can execute the smallest order! To those difficulties are joined the rarity of the secondary metals, which nature has so sparingly bestowed; the comparative high price of castings and iron, with the deficiency and want of the means of communication for the transport of fuel; all which difficulties must be surmounted; and, now this condition is amended, we cannot withhold our admiration from the courageous individuals who have also aided other branches of industry. Let us hope that the movement at length confirmed, we may extend our manufactures, since we possess mechanicians answerable to our wants, and that they will have certain employ by the development of the spirit of industry.

Iron and fuel are the primary elements of all industry. That we may compete with the foreigners, they must be abundant and cheap; and to this result the arts, not the intention of government, always have been unfavorable. It is true, French productions have been protected by a high tariff against foreign importations, and a movement of emulation and rivalry has ensued, which has induced the proprietors of stores, furnaces, and forges, to study all possible economy, and the melioration of the processes. The working of iron has made the greatest progress, but it has often not succeeded in rewarding the efforts. The protection with which it has been attended, has profited beyond measure and proportion the proprietor of forests, who, without either risk or labor, has obtained the most certain advantage.

In 1819, there were consumed in France—

Castings by wood coal ....tons	110,500	Iron, by wood coal.....tons	73,200
" coke.....	2,000	Iron, by pit coal, both exclusively and partially	1,000
Total tons consumed	112,500	Total tons.....	74,200

In 1842, the amount was,

Castings by wood coal.....	297,174	Iron, by wood coal.....tons	109,795
" coke	102,282	" pit coal.....	175,029
Total tons.....	399,456	Total tons.....	284 824

Until 1822, for the making of castings, and until 1833 for that of iron, the increase of mineral fuel was very slow. In 1829, the law of indemnity having changed considerable capital among the class of the great proprietors, the forests, sought out for their situation, acquired a high relative value, and the state of the woods fit for cultivation have been affected by it. Nature has very liberally diffused iron on the surface of the French soil; but certain situations, very important by the mass and the

good quality of the iron ore, are found far from the coal mines; and only near forests which ever have been devoted to the use of the foundries. There the masters of furnaces and forges have been subject to the proprietors of the woods, while the imperfection, or the want of ways of communication with coal mines, still interdicts every appeal to any change of method. Thus it has been ascertained that from 1829 to 1840, the price of wood coal, the use of which for inns is indispensable, has doubled in French Compte, in the Vorges, and the Houte Marne, all districts rich in forests. The competition of consumers has contributed to it; but the measures of the ministers of finance which has followed, have been the true source of the evil. The state, by succession the heir of the rights by French conquest of the greater part of the forests of ancient Gaul, has acted in the sale of them like an economical citizen, who has no other solicitude than to raise the price of the article which he alone can offer, to purchasing competitors. In England, at the same time, coal and minerals, distributed widely by the rivalry of sellers, have permitted enterprising men to devolope industry in an immense degree; and it is the flame of the forges and foundries in that island of fogs, through which she has acquired the sovereign power that rules the half of our globe.

The principal and accessory elaboration of iron and copper, and the turning of those substances into steel, plates and rods, and iron wares, increase the use of fuel. By combining those divers works for the using up of the primitive materials, the administration of the mines discovers that there were consumed in 1842, 45,500,000 francs, paid for wood and wood-coal; and 15,000,000 francs, for pit-coal and coke; for wood, one-fifth more than ten years previous; and for mineral fuel, an increase of two-fifths.

The workmanship of iron is the question involving the wealth and power of France. Iron must be abundant and cheap, if our industry would compete with that of foreigners—and agriculture also must have better instruments, and concur on its part to render life easier to the laboring classes. After the state, as possessors, of the forests, we find the civil list, the communes, and a small number of large proprietories. Those last follow the impulse which is given to them from the higher authority, and sometimes excite it through their political influence. In itself it is a monopoly which is established and abuses its power, because the producer of iron cannot escape from it. It would be the wisdom of the government, by the reduction of the price for the cutting of wood, to make an abatement which shall render not futile for consumers and producers, the progress that the spirit of order and economy, aided by science during several years has made. Extreme care is taken that a useful effect shall not be lost in the series of operations in metals; and, doubtless, the last word has not been mentioned as the result of amendments; but it should not be solely for the benefit of the proprietor of the soil.

France daily makes great progress in the course of labor, and all the useful professions are respected and honored in proportion as idleness loses credit, but neither true agriculture, nor genuine industry can dwell in the simple administration of the proprietor of the land, or of capital, who confines himself to watch the farmer, or the manager of it. He does not work by himself. He profits solely by the rivalry of the workmen, and of the better understanding of the works, the consequence of which

is the obtaining of more important products. Farming everywhere has extended. The land, by each change, acquires a more considerable selling value; and that incessant reaction, to which an obstacle has not interposed during thirty years, operates so that each new proprietor complains of the small interest which the land returns, contends against everything which may reduce it, and upholds every measure which could augment it.

The tax of interest, rent, or usury of moveable capitals, has undergone serious modifications; and has been diminished with the competition of greater security, and more extended credit—but as this part of public confidence always remains accompanied by certain accidents, that tax is higher than that of the rent of land. Nevertheless, we perceive that in proportion as riches are formed and are accumulated in the same hand, the man who attains a fortune generally invests a part of his wealth in landed property. On the other side, the true agriculturist, the man who toils and digs, if he can realize any savings, hastens to exchange it for the price of land which suits his judgment. He also has little regard for the farm which he might possibly obtain. In his mind he confounds the rent with the remuneration for the work which he designs to apply to his new acquisition, and of which he forms but little estimate. He also finds his business advantageous, while the simple proprietary will seek every occasion to raise the tax of rent, concerning which he negotiates, and strives to obtain the greater portion by the augmentation of the products, both in value and in quantity.

The state, the communes, and the high proprietorship, by different proceedings, have been the true authors of the relatively high price of iron, and in opposing them with all the resources of activity and science, the producers of iron have meliorated their difficult situation, by sometimes yielding in the conflict. The state maintains protection against foreign iron; but by the price of cutting wood, it adds every year something to the price of national iron. Every day, also, internal competition, necessity and the fixed standard of protected rights, determine an abatement of the selling price to the detriment of the manufacturer.

The diminution in the price of iron which will instantly follow when the government shall consult the true interests of the country; and not only the want of its daily resources already has produced a part of the happy effects which might be expected. France is agitated by remarking the rapid strides which all nations are making in the pathway of industry and labor. Reflecting men are excited by the public impulse, and notwithstanding the ill success of some others, do not abandon the career. In that number, we place in the first rank the mechanicians, considering the embarrassments which encircle them. We know well that a public exhibition cannot easily occur in a neighboring country, for all that country is one simultaneous exhibition; and every county, even every village of England, contains its wonders of art, and of a mechanical production; but we already have, as the guaranty of capacity in our constructors of machines, the foreign demand which drew from France, in 1837, nearly 1,800,000 francs, in 1842, about 4,600,000 francs, and in 1843, nearly 5,400,000 francs. Spain, Belgian, the Netherlands, Russia, Germany, almost all the neighboring countries, have united in this demand. Our exportations in other works, of which metals are the basis, in iron, castings, copper, &c., have been raised to 7,458,000 francs, in 1842; and to

8,725,000 francs, in 1843. Those sums are but small; but they are indications of the course upon which we are entering.

Having obtained possession of the machines for planing, turning, boring, drawing out, and cutting all kinds of mixed metals, iron and plates, we need not fear the want of producing tools. All the machines which were exhibited, were executed with a neatness and a precision which the most precious instruments destined for the mathematical sciences could claim; an indispensable condition now, as the principle of life, and motion of those powerful forces is generally derived from steam, that great auxiliary of man; but at the same time a difficult power, breaking through every obstruction which would make it deviate from its course.

The exhibition offers not a sufficient space for steam machinery to be displayed in all its magnificence. They were admitted only as patterns, or as a specimen of various systems. That sufficed to demonstrate that we have nothing more to desire respecting the perfection of them.

A multitude of various inventions, the design of which is to aid or prepare for human operations, attracted the attention of all. Some are owing to our national genius, a greater number are of foreign origin, but happily imitated. We need not be surprised that we often borrow; because we are not impelled by the stimulus of demand, which urges to the search after all possible economy in the workmanship. We proceed slowly, above all with the additional uncertainty of diminishing the capital of industry, always so burdensome to create. It it easily seen, that if the causes which have retarded among us the development of industry in iron works, had not existed, we should have made all other progress in the advancement of the mechanical arts.

Modern nations, formed through migration, conquest, unions, and the mixtures which their history retraces, in the midst of their various elements, have, notwithstanding the presence of some of the most striking features of the principal races to which they belong—in spite of numberless individualities which separate them from the mass, the character of a people is quickly defined, and it is easy to generalize their defects and their qualities. In the pursuit of works of industry, we are prompt to undertake, but easily discouraged Endowed with an inventive mind, we quickly abandon the discoveries that we make, to search after novelty, when the experience of our rival has shown the useful, which may be drawn from it. Yet one thing is universally acknowledged, that to the practical arts, we join that previous quality, called taste, which is rather felt than explicable. In contriving, as well as in appropriating the inventions of others, the Frenchman seeks to give to the object that he produces, the just proportion in form, the felicitous harmony in the choice of colors, which procures to the observing mind the satisfaction, that in one aspect it shall be dull or rough, and in another that it shall offend by the contrary defect. If, sometimes, an excess of elegance tends to sordidness, if the enticement of strangeness verges towards fantastic forms, the national taste rectifies the errors of the workman, and French products soon assume the place which they should occupy. In this connection, the exhibitions of France are especially remarkable.

Taste in France is sustained by a natural disposition to the culture of the fine arts. In the metropolis and in the principal cities, the attention of the less wealthy classes with avidity turns to the new products which annually are invented. The people learn to inspect and judge, and, not-

withstanding the incessant renewal of the laboring men in the cities, by the uncultivated inhabitants of the country, the notice of the arts prepares its way among the most restricted understandings, and tends to render perfect the numerous articles of our industry.

The bronzed materials, for example, as an article of commerce, are not a contemptible object; and they constitute in value one half of our exportations in wrought metals. Works of design, sculptures, mixed metals, carving, gilding, and other necessaries, form a large portion of our workmanship. Our principal workmen are enabled to distribute, in every country, the admirable articles which are sent from their manufactories. French art receives the tribute of the superior and wealthy classes of all the world; and the portion without taste, of affectation, and of trifling invitations every year diminishes.

Our goldsmiths' work is equally above all rivalry. Sometimes obliged to yield to the odd and singular taste of foreigners, it nevertheless unfolds the modifications with which the French hand impresses it. The outlines are purified and become elegant, the brilliant carving gives life, and carries into the details the grace which makes both valued. True masterpieces in design, art, and the combination of metals, marked the exhibition, and justify the popularity which encircles our working artists. The spirit of emulation urged them to study antiquity, and the various caprices of the middle ages; to examine the Indian art; to unite the contrarieties of the different costly metals so as to form the brilliancy of the precious stones; and the success of their undertakings has strengthened the confidence which their talents previously inspired. A regular annual exportation of ten or twelve millions of goldsmiths' work, trinkets, jewelry, corals, and plated articles, shows the esteem which foreigners have for our works. The galvanic process of the gold and silver in metals, called out to a great extension, cannot fail to enlarge considerably the advantages which we already have obtained.

We receive from foreigners, by the declaration of the custom house, and independent of contraband, five or six millions of clocks and watches of every kind, and our exportations remain within two millions. By which we may judge how much less the French workmanship is, than our demands. We do not here judge of the honorable exceptions which might be mentioned; but French names enjoy so little favor, that the greater part of the exported articles bear a strange name. This circumstance, indeed, is more advantageous than loyal; for we have the recent fact of the captain of a French ship, who, exporting some watches to China, only asked of the furnisher, that the movements and hands should keep together until the arrival of the ship at Canton. The result is only one of the countless episodes of that seaman's unfortunate petty commerce, which so much has contributed to discredit French frade in distant ports.

The frabrication of precise instruments, mathematical, physical, and optical, above all, the maritime light-houses, which assure the navigator against the danger of coasts, have received merited eulogy. Science thus finds ample provision for all the auxiliaries which aid man in the works that he undertakes, to put aside the boundaries of our knowledge.

We are inferior to England in the ordinary cutlery for the use of all classes, for which goodness and solidity suffice, at a moderate cost. Our system of workmanship, by isolated labor, is less favorable to this branch, which slowly improves. Although we succeed better in fine cutlery, ex-

cept a too great fickleness in the search after elegance, our regular exportations are restricted to annual value of 1,200,000 francs. That also is nearly the amount of our exportations of all kinds of arms, of which two-thirds are articles of fancy, and the other third is bows; and in them the exhibition scarcely unfolded any thing which is not called for by luxury or particular choice.

Cutlery and arms are among the number of important articles of exportation from England; nevertheless, the manufacturers of Birmingham and Sheffield, were eager to explore our products. They avowed, that during their visit, they had collected for the benefit of their establishments, useful and interesting observations, which no person could obtain by reiterated walks in the sale shops. They did full justice to French labor, but they could not adequately conceive the causes which oblige us to maintain our excessive prices for so many useful objects in all the details of life; and for the employments in which iron is gradually becoming a substitute for other materials, such as bedsteads of iron.

The workmanship of iron, as we have seen within the last quarter of a century, has been quadrupled in France. It is now begining to be more commensurate with our wants, but the price is too high. The appropriation of iron to the various operations, is without any possible limits; so, in proportion as we make progress, we shall behold other backward branches of industry developed, such as cutlery, arms, nails, iron ware, both fine and common, in all which foreigners now surpass us.

Besides the important articles just mentioned, others of great interest exist, which affect the well being that men desire in their domicils. In the first place is the workmanship of furniture, and instruments of music, which we cannot but consider in their commercial reference, and in which the manifestation of French taste is combined with their studious researches.

Civilized nations attach importance to that which makes the interior ornament and comfort of their dwellings. The climate which confines us during so many hours, renders necessary to us a multitude of conveniences, which the inhabitants of warmer countries cannot appreciate. Not only must our furniture be commodious, but the form and aspect of them must be agreeable; and in our attempts to secure those ends, we are attracted by the fickle love of change. Fashion, which displaced the false Roman design, by that of the middle age and of renovation, produced a great variety in forms of furnitnre. It invited the combination of sculpture in wood, metalic carving, gilding, with the application of stuffs and precious metals. The burden and the expense of transport will always hinder the foreigner from sending to France for anything but high-priced articles; but in this direction, we gaurd our advantages; and the exportations, in 1843, amounted to 3,000,000 francs, for furniture, and 1,200,000 francs for musical instruments.

The arts of saddlery and coach-making were scrarcely presented at the exhibition, and yet they are numbered among those which have made most progress. With the abatement of the price of iron and steel, and a better mechanical skill, all the parts of this important traffic are amended, and foreigners begin to appreciate the labor of our workmen; so that the exportation of those materials, for 1843, amounted to 1,300,000, or 1,400,000 francs.

The progress of glass works, and those of earthen-ware, is obvious. Our looking-glasses are unequalled. After long hesitation, our crystals

begin to rival those of Bohemia, Venice and England; and it would be censurable, not to mention the disks of flint-glass, of large dimensions, which promise new progress in astronomy. Those articles were furnished for exportation, in 1843, to the amount of 3,200,000 francs, and it is probable that the trade will increase.

The exportation of porcelain, in 1843, was valued at more than 2,000,000 francs for the ordinary kind, and at 7,000,000 francs for the fine articles. In all 9,000,000 francs, which amount is an advance upon 1841 and 1842.

Among the wealthier class, the use of earthen ware, which combines a moderate price with great neatness, susceptible of becoming an object of luxury through the application of gilding, and of the most precious painting and most tasteful ornaments, daily is enlarging. From the imitation of China ware, we have passed down to pipe clay; and now porcelain has penetrated into the village inn. We continue to manufacture good and beautiful porcelain, which is one of the arts that is increasingly developed. Sometimes, however, by seeking originality in novel forms, they are awkward and inconvenient. Such appears to us to be the poor idea of imitating Chinese wares. The Chinese type is sought only because it indicates a comparative rareness in the possessor, the effect of distance and difficulty; for, as soon as it becomes common, the fashion will be withdrawn, and the expense of the eccentric undertaking will be risked. We should give a high preference to the efforts of laborious workmen who would establish, in a more common earthen-ware destined for the poor classes, a low price, connected with solidity and suitability for ordinary use; being of good taste, without the grotesque. In this we offend: and the majority of our population are reduced to coarse earthen utensils, more numerous samples of which we regret that we did not see at the exhibition; at least enough of them by which the real condition, in the various departments of France, of one of the most useful arts might be judged. A special exhibition, which would combine the patterns of every article that is manufactured in France, might contribute to enlighten the various manufacturers upon the resources which are within their reach. The effects of rivalry would be less dreaded.

All the professions bound to be represented at this great assemblage of industry, many were not able to approach it, unless in alleging or producing a method of amendment, or of innovation on the ordinary practtice. This was principally discovered in the secondary arts appertaining to the construction of edifices. The fabrication of tiles, bricks, the apparatus for heat, flouring, plaster, imitations of marble, the use of wood in all forms, of metals and marble, would demand volumes to explain them; but scarcely either of those objects is susceptible of a moveable commerce. The almost exclusive use of them in the locality where they are produced, hinders us from noticing them; although each of them is applied to satisfy a want, or a fancy, and contributes to mark our era of civilization. It is otherwise when the exterior commerce seizes upon it; and in the impossibility of numbering in detail all the articles which passed under our eyes, we may assert that the French products exported in 1843, were,

Of mercer's wares,	francs	18,500,000
Toys,		1,200,000
Umbrellas,		1,200,000
Fashionable dress,		5,100,000
Various articles of Parisian elegant industry, fitted to attract purchasers,		5,600,000

This is doubtless a small sum, but the value is precious, because it is almost entirely the proceeds of industry and of workmanship.

The chemical arts also concurred to furnish, for the exhibition, a great variety of articles worthy of estimation, which also equally contribute to our external commerce. Perfumery, which belongs to them, is a branch sufficiently important to supply annually eight millions of products for exportation.

The divers preparations to which hides and skins are subjected, and which fit them for domestic uses, have also followed the course of improvement. Thus the exportations exceed eight millions for prepared skins, and more than twenty-one millions for those which have been wrought. Gloves alone, in this last sum, amount to eight millions.

The trade in hats appears to be stationary, both for internal traffic, and for exportation, for within three years it has not exceeded the amount of two millions.

All the arts are united, and mutually aid each other. Less than four centuries sufficed for typography to renew the face of the world. Who can doubt that to this wondrous invention, we owe all the changes effected by the deffusion of knowledge, and the amplitude of thought? Paper, that powerful auxiliary, is not deficient, and forms part of a traffic which constantly is enlarging. The exportation of white paper, for packing, or colored, has more than doubled within ten years, and now amounts to nearly eight millions. The mechanical operations for it have produced an enourmous abatement in the price, which has unfolded an increased consumption. At the late exhibition, a paper mill, destined for Belgium, was observed, which would compete, for precision, with the best established machines. The arts which belong to the use of paper are sustained in their superiority. Typography, lithography, engraving, cards, and engraved music, add largely to our external commerce, not less in 1843, than 9,400,000 francs, for painted paper. This last article, always directed by French taste, is unrivalled.

We have summarily estimated our foreign commerce in some of the principal articles of sale. This review unfolds the weakness of our resources, and the enormous distance between us and our rivals. Britain alone, after having retained that which is necessary for her own immense consumption, annually sends abroad as much iron as France produces. From which we may judge of her superiority in other articles.

We have yet to examine other industrial pursuits, containing equally important and useful instruction of this kind. We shall continue to cite, for this purpose, the documents for which our custom-house administration gives publicity. Guided by them, we can follow, analyze, and comprehend the least movements of trade. Imports, exports, transit, storage, navigation, and the coasting traffic, all are collected, and presented in a clear, simple, and methodical order. We would, however, remark, that constrained to use only the official calculations which were adopted in 1825, the administration give in their tables an exaggerated valuation to various merchandise. Thus, as to imports, colonial provisions, dye-stuffs, cotton, &c., and in exports, the cotton cloth, linen, and almost all our fabrics, are entered on the balance for sums which exceed one-third or one-half of the real value. There exists not any declared or certified valuation which is near the truth.

Without stopping for this inconvenience, which protracted examination

would but partially remove, we may remark, that our legislation grants much facility to commerce in transit and re-exportation. The merchandise that we reject from our own consumption, like colonial provisions and raw materials, are admitted to remain in our storehouses, and to circulate through our territory, passing by the frontiers, both of land and sea, from one nation to another. The value of this movement through France, between foreigners, almost without our participation, exclusive of the benefit of moderate charges, is comprised in the term, general commerce. The administration, under the title, special commerce, notices that which concerns the French trade only; that is, the importation of articles, the duties of which are released for national consumption, and the export of the products from our own soil, and industry. The difference between the special and general commerce, gives exactly the value of foreign exchanges, transacted under our control.

In 1843, the general commerce, by importation, amounted to francs	1,121,400,000
Special commerce,.....	845,600,000
Leaving, for the foreign traffic.....	275,800,000
as the value of merchandise in transit, re-exported or left in the storehouses.	
The general commeuce, for exportation, extend to.....francs	992,000,000
Special commerce,.....	687,300,000
Leaving for the foreign traffic,.....	304,700,000
as the value of merchandise re-exported, in the store-houses, or in transit.	

Our territory is peculiarly situated for communication between the United States, ancient Spanish America, Brazil, the Antilles, England, and a part of Spain on one side, with the Sardinian states, the kingdom of Lombardy, Switzerland, and central Germany, part of the Zoll Verein, and Belgium on the other side. England no longer takes the way of the continent for their distant commerce—but Holland, by the Rhine and the Meuse, Bremen and Hamburg upon the North Sea, Trieste in the Adriatic, Genoa and Leghorn in the Mediterranean—all offer the choice of divers routes, besides those of France, for the industry of internal Europe. Therefore we may conclude that the facts which we now shall examine, have more importance than the tables which we dismiss.

In comparing among themselves the products of our various manufactories, we can easily appreciate their relative quality and merit; but our judgment will not be adequate, until it is confirmed by that of the nations with whom we have commercial relations. Having prohibited similar articles, we have not before us all the principles of desirable comparison, only by the state of our exterior commerce, can we duly be enlightened. Foreigners show us, by the extensive or limited use of our merchandise, whether, in their judgment, we are in an advantageous course. Similar instruction is derived by us when the rivalry of another nation interferes with the marts of which we were in sole possession. We should regard the opinion of the foreign consumer, who is free to choose among all the supplies, because in the interior we are undisputed masters of the market. In this point of view, we shall more particularly examine the situation of the four great branches of industry which formed the most brilliant part of our recent exhibition. The deposits of workmanship in silk, wool, flax, hemp, and cotton, combine the final result of the greater part of the arts that we have reviewed. Iron, tool-machines, steam, and other moving powers, complicated mechanism, dying, gums, and the chemical arts,

all meet in spinning and weaving. Our examination, therefore, will be more minute, and we shall use some tables, because without them, our views would want support, and our reasoning would be without force, as depending upon mere assertions.

Any country assuredly cannot contest with France, our best characterized superiority in peculiar and remarkable woven goods. Nothing of that kind rivals the French manufactures. Respecting silk, we offer velvets, satins, and the richest and most perfect stuffs; in wool, we have fine cloths, merinos, and challies; in linen, cambric and lawns; and in cotton, our printed cloths. But have we attained the goal, and does this excellence certify the advantage over all our competitors? Doubtless not. We have passed the mark, but we must not stop there; and although we supply the demands of wealth and luxury, we must struggle, if we would work for more numerous purchasers, who take into consideration both the cost and the use.

Independent of the general causes which we have indicated as having hitherto more particularly paralyzed the efforts of our industry, we may specify the duties imposed upon the original articles, the agency of which is felt, notwithstanding the premium for export. As the workman knows not always beforehand that he is laboring for exportation, all the chances should be attained by him; and since the absolute prohibitions render us unable to know the competitorships with which we have to contend, we remain stationary when we should advance.

Spinning and weaving are the two most ancient arts in the world. The wool of animals, and afterwards silk, flax, and cotton, highly excited human industry, long ere the various species of cloths which mark our epoch were produced. Applied to the embellishment of our dwellings, and to our need of garments, the cloths which the masses of the population use, are the most certain index of their comfort or wretchedness. Since a power which the whole world recognizes, the fashion, exercises a mighty sway both in the choice of stuffs, and in the forms which they assume; that apparently futile motive often creates or dilapidates wealth in spite of reason.

Almost all men are susceptible of lively impressions by the sight of a new stuff, brilliant in color, gloomy or fantastic, or by the cut of a garment unexpectedly offered to their notice. If to the feeling of a certain strangeness, which attracts attention, is joined an appreciation of harmony, elegance, or distinction, in the person whom we see arrayed in a fashion to which we are not habituated, the fashion is created. That person becomes the type which is eagerly imitated, without reflecting that the acknowledged gracefulness may be peculiar to himself, and yet a whole population soon adopts the stuff, or the new fashion. The continuance of the mode is uncertain. It is at first the portion of a small number, then it passes around the whole neighborhood, struggling against inconvenience and a bad taste. From the elevated classes among whom it originated, it descends through society, expelling ancient habits, and making them disappear, until it yields to a novel mode, which a new hazard brings forth, and which runs through the same circle. The duration of a fashion is uncertain. Daughter of a caprice, caprice destroys it; and, nevertheless, this fugitive power, during its ephemeral reign, has distributed riches, animated the people, and produced economical effects of the highest importance.

The most dignified authority is powerless against fashion. It follows favor, but resists constraint. For example, in France, it is a prescription not to comply with an invitation from the prince, unless clothed in a particular dress, called the costume of the court, or the court dress. The assemblies where that dress is the etiquette, offer the most singular admixture of garments, of different modes, borrowed from divers epochs, ornaments in bad taste, and capricious embroidery. The artist, the scholar, the burgess, who are not distinguished by a particular habit, or a species of uniform, like public functionaries, understand that in departing from the levee to which they were invited, the fashion of the day cannot follow them into the society of their equals, that the fashion will not ratify the dress in pretence, and they hasten to cast it off, with its accompanying uneasiness. The court dress, when it was that which the saloons of titled men alone admitted, becoming a common mode, was subject to the common law, and to the sway of taste and the fashion. It is now only the index of a fleeting obligation, for the country are too conscious of men's worth, that merely exterior embroidery shall excite their respect for him who wears it.

Respecting the use of the most important woven goods, such as cloths, and silk stuffs combined, to which persons are attached, because of the change of color or of use, the mode annually tends to novelty in silks and stuffs, both mixed and printed. By this, above all, our exhibitions of industry constantly assume a new aspect, which is reflected among the surrounding multitude, seduced and charmed by the choice of so many objects designed to please them.

Fashion indistinctly arises in all civilized countries. In passing from one people to another, it receives a particular impression, which, however, leaves the trace of its origin. In Asia, in Egypt, in ancient Thrace, it has conquered the repulsion of Islamism for French customs; and in the exterior, it forms every nation into one family. In more distant periods, barbarous people were clothed after their own manner, and our exchanges with them were based upon other tastes than our own.

We proceed to compare our real commerce with that of the foreigners among us. If, in the official documents of our export trade, we attend to the articles woven, we ascertain that in 1843, there passed out of France—

	Of French workmanship. Francs.	Of foreign workmanship. Francs.
Of silk	129,579,499	33,469,810
wool	79,576,567	20,967,605
flax and hemp	9,663,571	12,062,150
linen, cambrics, and lawns	8,252,320	328,840
cotton	82,070,943	39,186,182
divers materials	487,216	1,175,288
divers threads	3,019,091	2,212,294
Total	312,649,187	109,402,089

The cloths exported from France, having a total value of 422,000,000 francs, represent nearly one-half of our entire commerce. To have the tax of the real trade in cloths, we must deduct 109,000,000 francs, or one-fourth which belongs to foreign fabrics. Moreover, our special commerce includes the consumption of our colonies, who have not the means to provide for themselves otherwise, and who purchase our native or na-

tionalized linen cloths, calicoes, and cotton goods. In our exclusion of foreign markets, the products which are defective are those which our manufacturers neglect, through indolence or inattention, attracted by the applause of public exhibitions, so favorable to articles of luxury and taste, and so careless to display that which belongs to the mass of consumers. One glance cast over the particular results of each industrial trade, justifies this declaration.

Silk goods always have been considered a branch of business in which every person yields us the palm. We have long possessed the production of a considerable part of the raw material which we use. The cultivation of silk worms yearly increases, by means of powerful emulation, the encouragement given to the culture of silk, and the universally acknowledged skill of our silk dressers. Silk appeared at the exhibition, from its state in cocoons, to its most advanced preparation by the dyer, for the manufacturer. It has justified the efforts of agriculture, and of silk-worm breeding, as well as of the mill and dying.

Calculations, carefully made, including only a few years, certify that eight or nine millions of kilogrammes of silk, in every kind, were used in European manufactures, throughout Europe, the Levant, and Eastern Asia. Italy alone supplied nearly one-half, and France furnished eight or nine hundred thousand kilogrammes. Those silks were dispersed among all the manufacturing people, in various proportions. France, on her part, received as much of raw, as of mill, or floss silk.

In 1841.....	1,418,000	kilogrammes, valued at	72,000,000 francs.
1842.....	954,000	" "	43,000,000 "
1843.....	1,318,000	" "	50,000,000 "

On the average, one million two hundred and thirty thousand kilogrammes, at the value of fifty-five millions; and the actual product must be nearly a similar amount.

During the same period, we exported, in silks of the same kind, of our own growth, or nationalized, in dyed silks—

In 1841	3,562,000 francs.
1842	5,679,000 "
1843	7,915,000 "

Our territory also permitted, for transit—

In 1841	47,000,000 francs.
1842	51,000,000 "
1843	51,000,000 "

That transit is equivalent to an equal sum of our own importation; and the silks of Lombady, Piedmont, and the Oriental countries, have only traversed our soil for the destination of the rival manufactures of England, Germany, and Switzerland.

If, as our efforts testify, we permit foreign silk to pass by us, our rivals will not longer find us in competition with them, in the Italian markets. It is probable that they will profit by it to obtain an abatement of price, and in this manner will combine against us many advantages. This is not an imaginary fear. Thus sustained, and with a system of workmanship less costly than ours, the countries which we have mentioned have overtaken and outstripped us. In the articles of silk, the general exportations of 1843 comprise—

	French manufactures. Francs.	From foreigners. Francs.
Printed handkerchiefs	1,168,320	68,880,440
Smooth silk stuffs	48,814,320	12,039,480
Ribbons	23,817,240	11,762,760

If an immense superiority remains with us still, in articles of taste, that which serves for general consumption cannot be disputed with us in our own domain.

Our situation for the working of wool, is still more disadvantageous; for a prior impediment is found in the demands of the proprietors of the soil. Already they have raised the price of iron, in doubling the cost of wood; or at least they have hindered it from descending to a fair price. Now they maintain the price of grossly imposing a duty of 20 per cent on wool, which they say is insufficient. To raise, without the combination of any special work, the selling value of land, then the price of rent, and thence to claim an augmented protection for products, are as baneful to all industry, as if a financial measure was adopted to raise a tax upon the interest of capital, and to stop credit. The manufacture of wool, on this occasion, has to contend against a serious difficulty, which the bounty for the export of stuffs is far from remedying; for an artificial rise of French wool results from it. Besides, the workman, on that occasion, has helped the proprietary, fearing that the withdrawment of the duty may involve the ceasing of the prohibition. The development of an industrious pursuit, which long was the glory of France, has been sacrificed to the stagnation which the actual system produces.

Our importations of foreign wool are limited, in ordinary cases, to twenty millions of kilogrammes; the average of which is forty millions of francs. In the division of exported products, we find that the wollen articles, in 1843, were thus classed:—

	French workmanship. Francs.	Foreign manuf. Francs.
Carpets	391,000	835,000
Cloths	19,280,000	8,420,000
Cassimeres and merinoes	5,693,000	4,124,000
Various stuffs	17 006,000	4,225,000
Hosiery	2,069,000	314,000
Mixed stuffs	6,223,000	2,135,000
Challies	26,964,000	790,000

By this small number of articles, we perceive that our fabrics continue to rival by their excellence; but for the middling qualities, the demands of distant people, and the sales which gave our ancestors the exclusive possession of the marts in the Levant, of those the most important, have been forgotten.

Is the want of wool suitable for moderate-priced goods, or is the wrong direction of our articles, to be assigned as the cause of our want of progress in the carpet business, since 1834? The most boasted of those carpet stuffs which appeared at the exhibition, were but middling in quality, and of bad taste in design. We seek to show, and not use; and we recall the words ratified by the inquiry of 1834. The continuance of the prohibition of Turkey carpets was claimed; and it was remarked, "They are sought because they are good, warm, and cheap." Alas! we did not perceive any carpets of that character at the exhibition of 1844.

In the production of challies, France has not a rival. They are a cloth of which delicate taste alone can perpetuate the fashion, in skilfully varying it. Our exports of challies, in 1841, amounted to eight millions; in 1842, to ten millions; and they now exceed that of cloths; which, for three years has been stationary, if not retrograding.

The manufacture of flax and hemp, which is so entwined with all our domestic use, has been naturalized in France with great difficulty, since it has passed generally out of the domestic hands, to be classed with manufactures. The housewife's spinning-wheel, and the modest loom of the husbandman, we aver, are now almost devoted to absolute inaction. The progress of the arts has affected the last refuge of poverty; and France, to which is due the discovery of machine-spinning, has not yet profited by it sufficiently to do without her competitors. Long did the fertile soil of Belgium furnish us with the lace that we needed, and supplied a part of our wants; now, we often procure from the foreigners the thread of which we supplied the raw material. Our custom-house laws are powerless to effect the remedy. France produced, of flax and hemp thread—

In 1841	9,915,000 kilogrammes, valued at	40,000,000	francs.
1842.....	11,314,000 " "	45,200,000	"
1843.....	7,629,000 " "	30,500,000	"

The change of legislation, in 1842, briefly suspended the imports; but already the first months of 1844, compared with those of the last year, manifest a great progression. The raising of the duties did not suffice to guarantee our spinning factories, and it is only in themselves that we must seek the means to repel foreign products. The high protecting duties only develop the fraud.

In cloths of flax and hemp, the produce was—

In 1841, to the value of	18,100,000	francs.
1842, "	19,800,000	"
1843, "	13,600,000	"

Nevertheless, certain of our articles are in demand for exportation, and our own colonies take from us the discharged foreign goods. It follows that, without any distinction of origin, the exports of cloth of flax and hemp were—

In 1841	14,000,000	francs.
1842	10,200,000	"
1843	11,700,000	"

And of cambrics and lawns—

In 1841	13,100,000	francs.
1842	8,300,000	"
1843	8,300,000	"

By which accounts, we may combine the exportation of flax and hemp thread at a sum from twelve to fifteen hundred thousand francs.

What is the cause of our inferiority in this ancient business, so conjoined with the cultivation of silk? Because the researches of the awarders might be revealed. But we affim that, superior to all in the making of lawn, we only depend upon the foreigner for the materials of lace which are used in our chemises. As to the rest, our exportations of fine linen, if our documents are exact, are themselves jeoparded; and in the making

of articles for general use, our competitors have nearly arrived at perfection in articles of luxury and distinction.

Cotton, the first exotic material for France, supplies the place of silk, wool, and flax. By its moderate price, it permits the poorest classes to be conveniently clothed, and completes, at a small expense, the furnishing of their humble abodes; while, by skilful hands, it serves to embellish the richest palaces. Within half a century, the operative efforts in the use of cotton, aided by the extension of its culture, and the fertility of South-eastern America, have produced so powerful a revolution, that it has changed the political equilibrium of states, and modified the condition of the social classes in the most important stations of the globe. The harmony between the two sides of the Atlantic is, perhaps, owing to the cotton trade.

France follows England, but separated at an enormous distance in the manufacture of cotton. One part of Prussia, Saxony, Belgium, and, above all, Switzerland, participate largely in it. With the exception of the *tulles* which are sent from England into Switzerland, doubtless to be scattered abroad through the neighboring countries, we perceive that the cotton articles which pass over our territory, come from the countries that we have named.

Our exportations in comparison, for 1843, were—

	French workmanship. Francs.	Foreign manufact. Francs.
Woven cotton and calico	17,626,000	1,411,000
Printed linen	49,900,000	12,480,000
Handkerchiefs and challies	4.713,000	6,834,000
Cloth and velvet	974,000	639,000
Tulles and gauzes	1,306,000	9,242,600
Muslin	1,052,000	5,151,000
Hosiery	1,092,000	332,000

Hence, we perceive that the printed linens of Switzerland and Germany displace our own in exports. Foreign handkerchiefs and challies surpass those of Alsace. The muslins of Switzerland and Saxony are five times the amount of those of Taran and St. Quentin, which, nevertheless, appeared so brilliant and beautiful at our recently closed exhibition.

The variety of designs and the richness of colors, the proof of our inventive genius, incessantly reviewing articles in which novelty appeared to be extinct, have, nevertheless, preserved our fabrics of St. Marie aux Mines, and the rich valleys of Alsace, against the intrusion of the grand duchy of Berg, and of Glasgow. That city has displaced us in all the eastern countries as to Cambayas or Bengal cottons and red handkerchiefs, with which one house covers the whole world.

Within a short period, the English have explored the situation of the cotton manufacture in France.* They found that in four thousand spinning factories, with the exception of those on the Upper Rhine, the looms and machines were imperfect, or deteriorated. In Alsace, the English models are imitated; but the establishment of a well-ordered spinning factory, ordinarily costs thirty per cent more than in England. By the employment of water falls, which can be applied in certain cantons, as in Normandy, and by great economy in fuel, the high price of coal might be

* Manchester Guardian, December, 1843.

remedied. For want of skill to produce numbers of yarn of equal fineness, cotton valued at 20 or 22 francs per 100 kilogrammes more than that made in England, is used, and that alone declares the disadvantage under which we labor.

If these details are exact, as we believe, they contribute to explain that the evil is in the very source; and that until we improve our spinning factories, our skill in dyeing and figures will benefit but a small portion of our workmanship.

Our inferiority in spinning is such, that far from participating in the immense exportations of spun cottons which Britain displays, we are obliged to receive from her, in the higher numbers, for our muslins, in spite of the hopes which the protective duty raised ten years ago. The same vital cause, the imperfection of our spinning factories, hinders the development of our trade in hosiery. The department of Le Gard and L'Aube, teach us at what an immense distance we remain for that article. Whether in wool or cotton, hosiery is very much behind in France; and the high price not only paralyzes exportation, but also the internal consumption.

Let not any person suppose that by this rapid sketch of the tendencies and errors of French industry, we have any design to abate the merit of our working manufacturers. We united with all France in the general eulogy so justly announced. To that praise the government added high and splendid rewards, proportioned to their claims. An enlightened and conscientious commission more slowly published the motive of their decisions, and doubtless, also, the reasons which guided their judgment. There we certainly shall find, in the use of so many various products, and their influence on the balance of commerce, the correct indications destined to complete the documents in the inquiry of 1834. Ten years have elapsed, and it is important to examine, if the promises made, and the melioration expected, has been obtained, and what causes have delayed the fulfilment of them.

One grand instruction appears to us concealed under the figures in the tables of our commercial movement. There the principle resides, which should strengthen and raise the power of France. Agriculture, skill, commerce, and navigation, are the first links in the chain which terminates in wealth, a revenue, a navy, and power.

We insist earnestly upon the necessity for France to regain the manufacturing of common and remarkable articles, because the system of absolute prohibition is daily losing ground. England, which has never desisted from any measure from which she could derive advantage, who formerly made war with Spain that she might have the sole right to supply slaves, and which now strives to make Spain emancipate her slaves, and thereby to ruin Havana and benefit British India. England invented the system of prohibition, and that stimulant developed her home industry. Now that arm is weakened. Reprisals are too easy, since people understand each other better, and Britain has renounced the system. It is true, too high protective duties have generally succeeded the prohibition; but that is not the same thing. Relations are not active; nevertheless, they exist; and there is an exchange of various products. For some articles, chiefly clothes of wool and cotton, we only have preserved the regulations of our laws in 1796, and our manufacturers are opposed to any modification of them. But will a change never occur? We think so.

Opinion is enlightened, and a complete interdiction has been unfavorable. It will eventually terminate, and notwithstanding protection duties, however high, we shall yet consume foreign cloths. As far as our skill conveniently resists the competitorship, it is for our interest to produce a good bargain, and to resist, in this connection, that which is otherwise made. It must guard against invasion, and in constant reference to it, it will naturally follow, that the place which it should occupy in reputation will be regained.

The exhibitions, as we have seen, propel us constantly in the contrary way. Fineness, beauty, splendor, are all that is reiterated, because they alone lead to distinction. Good use, intrinsic worth, a good bargain, those are disdained; and, nevertheless, they alone give a vent to articles, and promote the well-being of the people, and the wealth of the country.

All nations by whom labor is honored, and whose attention is turned to the welfare of the poor and laboring classes, seek openings for the excess of their products. Must we address foreign consumers, to offer them only articles for luxury and opulence? or, must we keep in view the purchasers of every grade, even the poor: and, consequently, the daily and useful wants of all the people? This grave question admits not of a dubious solution. The principal trade is that for the mass of mankind.

Perhaps it may be objected, that the workmen employed on rich products, created by means of great skill of workmanship, are better paid than those who are employed in common articles. We grant it, although there are examples to the contrary. Thus we hear that a species of work is suppressed; but one means to give employment to more people, is to engage in simpler objects appropriate to a larger class of wants. The wages would be less, if less skill was required; but under a climate less severe than that of Germany and England, with more resources for convenient nourishment, the wages would suffice; since in mixing certain operations with agricultural labor, the subsistence of the workman would have two points of support, and never would arrive at the excess of misery to which the extreme division of labor has conducted the neighboring population of Britain.

In reference to wages, we cannot resist painful impressions, when we saw displayed at the exhibition, the various products finished in the houses of solitary punishment. We can conceive the embarrassment of society in the presence of men who are banished; nevertheless, by the system now adopted, all the conditions of slavery, and not the penalties of a prison, are revived. Their work is sold to a speculator, who carries it to the best possible market; and who, by means of the imposed task, and of the coercion which the administration grants to him, strives to obtain the greatest part. Certainly that is servile labor; and we may blame ourselves, if it should interfere with the work of freemen. Rough and gross work, the extension of which is indefinite, offers no inconvenience, and leads not to any perturburation of business, if society employ criminals in it; but the prisoner who works in brass, marble, gloves, or other similar articles, by his position, reduces the wages of the workman who competes with him. It is slave work in the midst of free labor.

Almost all the numerous colonies which France settled upon the globe, have been severed from her. In her unwise apathy, she misunderstood the value of those which remained to her, and which annually sink deeper into the misery which is assigned to them. Not one person is occupied

for their relief or redress; and when energetic and enlightened men have endeavored to amend the lot of distant countries, all vanishes before the miserable act of the colonies still belonging to France. Fifteen thousand Frenchmen are at Montevideo; and if Mexico had not adopted her inhospitable laws, we should have been scarcely able to enumerate our fellow citizens who would there be residents. Our compatriots roam everywhere, except where France holds the sway. Those of the Germanic race, and their neighbors, the Swabians, all remove to the United States. Great power is lost to France, without her obtaining by the sacrifice, any favor. We have neither distant possessions, nor barbarous people to govern; therefore our commercial situation demands more study and care.

Openings for trade are obtained and preserved only by constant activity and watchfulness. If the progress of a rival is developed, it should be met by equal advancement. Sleep must not overcome France. Commerce is transacted by her, without her, and without disquieting her. She feels too little concern for it, and all is said in mutual compliments.

We cannot penetrate the secret of cabinet deliberations, but there, above all, the spirit of order and tradition appears defective. Sometimes the weightiest interests of our ancient commercial relations are neglected or forgotten; then, from some sudden circumstance, other errors excite and infatuate. A diplomatist, displaced from political considerations, dreams that China has consented to a treaty with a European nation, and it is said that we ought to bring that empire to the same concessions. A showy armament soon carries out an ambassador, and his suite, and commercial delegates, all meritorious persons, delighted to have a long voyage to make, during which they may acquire the information belonging to their mission, and above all, the languages, even European, which will be necessary, and of which they all are ignorant. France stands with eyes fixed upon the expedition, from which she expects instructions hitherto unknown, and yet what can be learned from China, which is not known to commerce, and even by the ministry, perfectly? If our connection with China has to be developed, it must be by a larger consumption of tea, and some drugs, of porcelain, and various articles of skill, like those which we call "articles of Paris." As to exportations, England pays us annually a species of tribute for renouncing the immoral traffic in opium; but that which, then, is most important, is her trade in spun cotton, calicoes of great breadth, cloths of appropriate dimensions and moderate price, camblets, &c., all of them articles in which our infirmity is acknowledged; because that trade requires not articles for luxury, but for common usefulness. The Americans also know all that subject; and while we are deliberating upon the attempts which we should make, the single city of Boston, in the United States, in 1843, loaded for the Indian ocean, the east and the south, sixty-six vessels, of which, sixteen were despatched for Canton, and other points of China. But we need not overvalue this incident, the development of which will soon come. Our circumnavigating expedition has other missions that may indemnify us; among others, not to bring silks from China, but to learn their methods of culture, that they may be introduced among us.

To regulate the development of French industry, to contribute to place it as much as possible in a durable state of independence of the caprices and variations of fashion, the government must concur with the

trade. The merchant, at his risk and hazard, must seek for the openings, ascertain the wants of divers people, discover those who are dissatisfied, and consider the means to provide them with what our skill offers. The duty of government is to follow commerce, step by step, in its researches, to watch over it with our navy, and to offer it the support of consular agents, even before the want of them is felt. Those agents should have a double commission, to protect the citizens, and to ascertain the complaints which their method of traffic might produce. We all know that on the return of an expedition from a distance, if any article of export has succeeded, the seaman fails not in making a new order, to inform the manufacturer that he wishes to have something more advantageous, that he may save appearances by diminishing the quality and the price. The article thus depreciated, is carried to the consumer, as of the same value, and is only known by use. French merchandise thus is discredited, and our celebrity and character are lost without recovery.

The commercial system of France, in its connection with the foreign regulations, is combined with four or five ministerial departments. That of foreign affairs, regulates diplomacy, names the consuls and agents from whom our traders may claim aid and protection. The naval follows our mercantile navigation over all seas, to sustain and defend it, and nominates the colonial authorities. That of finance, guardians of the treasury, interposes in all questions of taxes and tariffs. The ministers of agriculture and commerce requires from all the others the instruction and information which only thus indirectly reach him. Limited in its jurisdiction, more limited still in its sphere of action, it interferes not in any thing important, and only enounces opinions without the power to enforce them. The notions of assimilation and of centralizing, which even occupy us more than the results of governmental action, have so regulated the affairs of the administration, that the minister demands the work from a director, and he refers to a chief clerk, who transmits the requisition to his inferiors. The report is returned in the same manner, accompanied by successive notes. If needful, it is new-modelled in its course, but without ever being the product of serious discussion, for all of it passes between the superior and the subordinate. Under the minister, every man is as a wheel, which takes care not to go out of its catch, because the whole government would be affected by it. What can be expected that is serious, dignified, or coherent, for the commercial prosperity of a country, from such an organization? Where shall we find the opinions, the remembrances of enterprises long conceived and reflected upon, and a connected plan which may guide the successors whom the policy of the times and of men should direct? We conceive of a minister at the head of the department of commerce, a political man changing with his party; but relying for those great interests, upon the opinion discussed before him by the members of his office, chosen for capacity and experience, knowing no other change than the ordinary mutations of life include, and originating resolves stamped with energy and continuance. A similar department might take its place with equal claim, of directors selected from the other branches of the administration, whose concurrence might be necessary, who might deliberate in the presence of all those ministers interested in the topic. All would retire from such an assembly, enlightened by the counsel which would emanate from it. The department of commerce would render the temporary commissions superfluous; a very

small number of which finish their work by useful and pratical deliberation. It should also render useless the superior council, which includes illustrious names, but few enlightened men in present practical business. The prospects of our still remaining colonies, the creation of new establishments, our commercial relations with all people, the dignity of the French name, the interests of our navy, the direction of our skill, would be perpetual subjects of meditation. Commercial confidence would increase, and perhaps we should perceive that the repugnance of French merchants, to commence trading houses in distant countries, would cease.

Peace between the great powers has now been established for thirty years; and, notwithstanding the clouds which events sometimes raise, the interests of all people and governments are too deeply combined with it, for the most stormy passions to trouble it. War places the commerce of the world in the hands of nations who maintain their neutrality, and no one is willing to aggrandize the fortune and wealth of his rival. The world, therefore, is open to all who are willing and able to improve it. Still there are countries already withdrawn from general activity, monopolized by protection or colonization; but that which yet remains, offers immense resources, and French commerce should not be discouraged. The duty of our government is to accompany trade in its operations; and wherever our citizens may be called, there to station consular agents in a sufficient number for needful protection. Not only should those employments be divided among worthy, enlightened, and decided men, capable of making the flag that waves over their mansions respected, but in requiring of them high qualities and various knowledge, the public authority should also give them the means to exercise over those around them a legitimate influence, and to sustain the rank which they should guard. In the two Americas, in Asia, in the Eastern countries, in the Levant, our consuls should live upon an equality with the agents of other European nations, otherwise their efforts will be paralyzed. The country cannot, without shame, draw back from sacrifices, the end of which is to secure to France a larger share in the trade of the world. At Manilla, Canton, Macao, Calcutta, Bombay, &c., everywhere, to English or American houses, our merchants and captains are obliged to consign their goods; and French agencies would more easily be established, if judicious and able consuls were present to sanction them.

We are induced to believe that an exhibition like that which has just closed, might be succeeded by a much more profitable institution, that should unite and place before us foreign products, both those of competition, and those of distant countries, which might serve for models. The instruction which our workmen received from each other, and which they have given to the foreigner, they would obtain in return, and the advantages of it would be immense.

With the president of the umpires,* we admired the magnificence of our silks, while deploring that plain silks, ribbons, and Creveld velvets, the products of England, Switzerland, and Prussia, should supersede our own among foreigners; and the fineness of our cloths, the perfection of our laces; regretting to see that if we make the lawn and the cambric, we want England for the thread, and Belgium for the cloth; and the lightness of our challies, fearing that a change in the fashion at some time

* Discourse of M. Thenard, Moniteur of July 31.

will hazard a business which furnishes the value of 7,000,000 of francs for exportation, while the cloth trade, a sure and regular manufacture, remains stationary or decreases; and the richness of our tapestry, which makes but little progress for domestic use, because the high price banishes those articles from unassuming habitations. Wi h regard to the others, we adhere to the general praise. Notwithstanding, when the results are so serious, the rejoicings of vanity should be considered as altogether fruitless. D. L. R.

Art. II.—THE CHINA TRADE.

The negotiation of a new commercial treaty between the United States and the government of China, by which it is understood that our own commerce with this empire is placed upon the same basis as that of Great Britain, is an important feature of our recent foreign diplomacy. That singular people, has, it is well known, heretofore kept itself in a great measure aloof from the intimate intercourse sanctioned among modern civilized states, as well by reciprocal treaty, as the law of nations; and the thunder of British batteries along their frontier has induced them to enrol themselves in the list of governments who meet upon an amicable footing of natural trade and commerce, and are bound by certain fixed and conventional principles of international law. Although there appears yet to be lurking among the great body of the Chinese, in Canton, a deep rooted jealousy and hatred of foreigners, which has recently manifested itself in some high handed measures on their part, there is but little doubt that the present arrangement will be of substantial benefit to the commerce of this country. By the arrangement made with the British government, which, as has been remarked, is alleged to be similar to our own, merchantmen are permitted to enter the ports of Canton, Fuchan, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, they complying with certain rules that have been established for the regulation of commerce. It is moreover stipulated that Americans may trade with any of the native merchants they please, while the Chinese engage that if any of their native merchants abscond or incur debts which they are unable to discharge, the proper authorities will strive to bring them to justice, and if those debts are in any mode lost, there shall be no appeal to the former custom of the Hong merchants, by which they were bound to made good those losses thus incurred.

In consequence of the new aspect thus given to our commercial relations with China, we propose to devote the present paper to a consideration of the rise and progress of our trade with that nation. We are enabled to do so with the greater confidence from the possession of recent materials which have come to hand. An intelligent and respectable individual who has been long practically acquainted with the China trade, has recently compiled a pamphlet,* throwing new light upon the subject, and from the authentic information which he has afforded us, we propose to draw somewhat largely, because it is a subject of more than ordinary interest to the commercial portion of the American public.

* Remarks on China and the China Trade, by R. B. Forbes. Boston: Samuel N. Dickenson, 1844.

It appears that soon after the termination of the war between Great Britain and America, several merchants in New York and Philadelphia being desirous of opening a commerce with Canton, a ship was purchased, called the "Empress of China," of 360 tons' burthen, loaded with ginseng, and sailed from New York on the 22d of February, 1784, with a view to exchange her cargo for teas and the various sorts of Chinese manufactures. This ship was manned with forty-six souls, and probably mounted ten or more guns, carrying between four and five hundred tons of China cargo. She reached China on the 23d of August, after a voyage of about six months, set sail from that port on the 31st of December of the same year, and returned to New York on the 11th of May, having been a s[illegible] fourteen and a half months. The arrival of the "Empress of China," which was accompanied upon the voyage by two French ships, the Triton and the Fabius, was at that time deemed a matter of no little importance, and upon her entrance at Macao Roads she was visited by the French consul and several gentlemen, when mutual salutations, by the firing of guns, were passed. At that period the city of Macao was in much the same condition as it has been since, until the late controversy between the Chinese and the British government. Then a Portuguese settlement at the mouth of the Canton river, it had a governor who was nominated by the king of Portugal; yet its very existence depended upon the will of the Chinese, who had the power of dispossessing the Portuguese at their option, a circumstance that induced a careful circumspection, lest they should give offence. This, it would seem, is the present position of the city of Macao, which is still held by the Portuguese, although less under the direct authority of the Chinese government.

That prominent body of men, the Hong merchants of China, have borne so important a part in the commerce of the empire, that they deserve to be considered, although as a class they no longer exist, in consequence of the new order of things. This class of merchants was comprised of twelve or more individuals, who were licensed by the government to carry on the foreign trade, and who were held responsible for the good conduct of foreigners, as well as for the collection of the imperial duties of import and export by the local government of Canton. They were, in fact, the keepers of the foreign community at that port, exercising a rigid guardianship over their conduct, and preserved the order of the community by a vigilant police, and some annoying exactions. Their places of business were in the suburbs of Canton, near the points called "factories," which were the foreign places of abode, and were termed "Hongs," the meaning of which is, a block of houses fronting upon the river, and running back two or three hundred yards, and divided by small court yards into five, six, or more factories. The residences of the merchants were of much the same character, although the buildings were appropriated to the storage of goods, the fronts being near the river, where the "chopboats" could be laden with merchandise in order to be transported to the ships at Whampoa, which is ten or twelve miles below Canton.

The supervisor of the Hong merchants was the "hoppo," or collector of customs, who was the principal agent appointed by the government for the superintendence of the foreign trade, and who derived the emoluments of his office, not only from a stipulated salary, but also from numerous perquisites springing from exactions and fees paid into his hands by subordinate officers, who were mandarins, that name being given to all who

held either a civil or military office. The Hong merchants were also termed "security merchants," inasmuch as they were responsible to the "hoppo," not only for the payment of duties, but also for the good conduct of the ship's company to the local government of Canton. It has been remarked that the Hong merchants, or the Co-Hong, as they were named in their collective capacity, enjoyed the exclusive monopoly of the foreign trade, yet this must be taken with some exceptions. The small shop-keepers, who were termed "outside men," because they were out of the Hong monopoly, were permitted to sell, in limited parcels, the limit, however, depending upon arrangement, and they sometimes were even allowed, in accordance with an understanding with the Hong merchants, to ship off large quantities of silk.

As the foreign trade was prosecuted in great measure through the agency of the Hong merchants, they were deemed a fixed body of men and it was difficult for those who had once enlisted in this body, to retire. This could only be done by bankruptcy, and as a bankrupt Hong merchant was liable to a sentence of banishment to "Glee," or the "Cold Country," that mode of retirement was attended with other unpleasant consequences. Two of the most responsible of the Co-Hong monopoly were generally selected as the "senior Hong merchants," and upon those, the local government of Canton, as well as the other members, endeavored to place all the responsibility of the foreign trade. Houqua and Mouqua, held the last named office for a long time, and were deemed the agents through which all the communications with foreigners were prosecuted. It was made binding upon the Hong merchants to pay to the "hoppo," for the imperial treasury, the largest amount of duties possible, and any merchant failing thus to pay such duties, was to be banished to Glee, the cold country to which we have alluded, a place situated in the north-western corner of the empire.

During the existence of the East India Company, whose charter in China expired in 1834, the Co-Hong were bound to make good to them any losses arising from the insolvency of a Hong merchant. Since that period, in order to raise a fund for the payment of such losses, certain arbitrary duties have been exacted, in addition to the imperial duties, and are held under the name of the "Consoo Fund," every merchant engaged in the China trade being bound to contribute to this fund. It was originally established in 1494, by Pankequa, the general dictator to the Co-Hong, who had the shrewdness to exempt from taxation many articles in which he was himself interested. The amount collected for each year, has of course varied, but it has been usually quite large, in order to pay subordinate duties to mandarins, the debts of Hong merchants, and the fees to the government in Pekin. During one year, the "consoo charge" amounted to about 436,000 taels, or 608,000 dollars.

The responsibilities of the Hong merchants have rendered the situation anything but enviable. They were, in fact, a body of police appointed by the government to take care of the foreign trade, as well as foreigners, in their ports. During the year 1793 there were twelve Hongs, and in 1808 there were fourteen, with the following names:—Pankequa, Mouqua, Puiqua, Chunqua, Tonqua, Gnewqua, Exchin, Mankop, Poonqua, Lyqua, Kinqua, Fatqua, and Fouqua. In April, of 1834, the monopoly of the East India Company being at an end, the Co-Hong consisted of thirteen, whose names we here give:—Houqua, Mouqua, Pankequa, Gouqua, Kinqua,

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The mode in which the business was transacted under the Hong merchants, was the following:—Upon the arrival of a ship at Whampoa, the supercargo, or consignee, applied to the Hong merchant to "secure" the ship, which was nothing less than receiving the cargo into his warehouse, and undertaking to pay the duties to the government. It was understood that the party who received the cargo and undertook the payment of the duties, was the individual to furnish the outward cargo, or, at all events, the medium through which it was to be shipped. It was, moreover, customary for the Hong to purchase himself, a considerable portion of the cargo which he received. It was usual, indeed, until within the last eight or ten years, for the Hong not only to purchase somewhat extensively of the import cargo, but also to sell largely on his own account, teas, the price of which was settled by contract of the East India Company. These contracts embraced a large portion of the teas. The samples of these teas came to Canton in September, and the boxes arrived afterward. But since the expiration of the charter of the East India Company, in 1834, it has been customary to wait until the teas arrived in market, when they are offered for sale to general competition, and the tea trade has thus fallen into the hands of private merchants.

Previous to the late treaty, the port charges, it appears, were excessive; but since that time they have been somewhat diminished. Besides the port charges, which were comprised under the general term of "cumsha and measurement," there were also charges for inward and outward pilotage, and the "linguist" and "comprador's" fees, amounting to between six hundred and a thousand dollars on a ship of five or six hundred tons. The next duty, after engaging a "security" merchant and a linguist, was to enter into a bond that the ship entering the port did not contain opium, and that should it be discovered, the party offending would await legal trial and punishment. This bond was signed by the captain in duplicate, one copy being presented to the governor, and the other to the "hoppo." When the bond was thus duly given, permission was granted to unload, and "chopboats" were despatched by the Hong merchants to receive the cargo, accompanied by the linguist, or his clerks, and officers from the "hoppo's" office, in order to see that the proceedings were transacted in due form of law. The system of barter was, moreover, not uncommon in the early trade to China, but for many years past, it would seem, that payments in cash, or a credit of from sixty to ninety days, has been customary in the more recent commerce with the empire.

The "linguist" was one of the most prominent actors in the foreign trade of China, and it may not be uninteresting here to consider his character. He was a sort of public servant, being the "runner," as he has been called, between the office of the hoppo, the foreign merchant, and the Hong merchant, bearing the burdens and encountering the complaints of all three, in case anything went wrong. He was always ready to act as the agent for these three parties, providing a consideration was granted to him, and was the slave of each. Without honesty, he was expected to utter falsehoods for his masters, and was admitted on all sides to be a tho-

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rongh and unscrupulous rogue. The entire trading population of China, has in fact, established a character for knavery which we trust may be improved by a more frequent connection with nations in which a higher mode of morality prevails. This remark, however, will not apply to the Hong merchants, for they have been found, as a body, uniformly honorable, intelligent, accurate accountants, punctual to their contracts, and as respectable in their character as the merchants of any country, seeming to prize highly a good reputation.

The early foreign trade with Canton, it appears, has been considerable. Mr. Samuel Shaw, who first sailed to that port in the "Empress of China," to which we have alluded, states that in 1787–8, there were the following ships with their cargoes in the port of Canton, besides twenty-four country ships, five English ships, and one American brig called the "Eleonora," within the vicinity of Macao:—

English,	28, with.....	500.38	piculs of ginseng.
Dutch,	5, with.....	25.05	"
Swedes,	2, with.....	19.51	"
Danes,	2, with.....	9.48	"
French,	3, with.....	115.99	"
Prussian	1, with.....	3.69	"
Tuscan	1, with.....	.....	"
American,	1, with.....	52.18	"
	43 ships to pass the Cape.	726.28	piculs.
	31 country ships bound back to India.		
	4 Portuguese, at Macao, bound to Lisbon.		

Total ..... 78, and one more expected from England, and one from Bombay. And in 1788–9, he informs us that there were 43 to pass the Cape, viz:—

English.....	21	Spanish.....	2
Swedes.....	2	American.....	4
Danes.....	2	Portuguese.....	7
French.....	1		
Dutch,.....	4	Total.....	43

A brief account of the trade in tea, which has long been one of the principal staples of China, may be of some value. As early as 1784, the consumption of tea by Great Britain and its dependencies, was about 14,000,000 pounds. Three years afterward, namely, in 1787–8, there were exported from China by British ships, 21,407,066 pounds net, and we may judge somewhat of the enormous increase in the tea trade in China, from the fact that during the year 1834, the last year of the existence of the East India Company, there were 23,369,600 pounds of black tea, and 4,977,600 pounds of green tea exported to Great Britain by that company, besides 3,870,000 pounds on private account, making a total of 33,218,000 pounds. During the years 1833–4, the total British trade to China was valued at $23,476,793, while the value of the bullion exported from China at the same time was $6,217,820. There were at that period between 13,000,000 and 14,000,000 pounds of cotton exported to the empire by the company, and a large quantity by private traders, making the total amount 54,557,500 pounds, valued at about $6,500,000, besides 17,600 chests of opium, which were carried to China, and sold for $11,618,000. From these data we may form some estimate of the amount of the early China trade, as well as that which has been carried on during a more recent period.

It appears that the establishment of an extensive trade with the empire of China has long been a favorite object with the British government. From the year 1637, the date of the first record of the East India Company, at Canton, down to the present time, numerous embassies have been sent to the Imperial Government, and it would seem not without success, when we view the present extent of the British commerce, which is now carried on with that nation. It is seen by the returns from its ports, that much the greater part of its commerce is now carried on in British ships.

We would now direct our attention to the trade of our own country with China. Among the principal articles of export from that empire, have been teas, nankins, China-ware and silks. A very considerable trade has been, moreover, prosecuted with that nation, in the article of nankins, and in 1820 we exported 3,135,000 pieces; but this species of importation gradually declined, so that now there is scarcely a single piece brought into the country. A large quantity of Lowell sheetings and drillings is exported by us to China, and being re-dyed, is carried from the empire to the Pacific ocean. So, also, in the article of China-ware, a considerable quantity was formerly imported, but at present only a fancy set occasionally finds its way into our own ports. In the article of silks, the change of our trade, with China, has been very decided. From 1822 to 1827, the imports of silk ranged from 372,000 to 144,000 pieces, and it has been somewhat diminished to the present time. By silks are included all those materials of which silks make the fabric; and one reason, perhaps, of the former large importations by us, was the fact, that the great bulk of the silks, thus brought into the country, were crapes and pongees, to assume the form of handkerchiefs, not only for our own use, but also for re-exportation. Sugar also was exported from China to this country in considerable quantity, it having reached the average amount of 4,500,000 pounds for a series of years, between 1817 and 1821, and the amount has been gradually diminished, with occasional exceptions, to the present time. We have also exported in American vessels from China, camphor, cassia lignæ, raw silk, sweetmeats, vermillion and matting, with numerous other articles of minor value. At the present time, however, the principal articles of export from the empire are tea, cassia and matting. Canton crapes being passed by, and China silks being forgotten, if we except the white, the scarlet, and the black.

The tea trade being one of the most prominent enterprises connected with the Chinese empire, deserves, perhaps, a more particular description. This plant has now extended itself into general use in our own country, and it is from China that we derive the entire amount of this valuable product. The subjoined tables exhibit the exports of tea, from China, in American vessels from 1804 to 1820, and also the imports of tea into the United States from 1821 to 1829. It may be remarked, however, in further explanation of the last table, that, in consequence of anticipated troubles growing out of the China war with Great Britain, they were exported in 1840, by the Americans, 250,000 chests, of which quantity 200,000 were green; 108,000 chests only were exported in 1840–1, a part of which time Canton river was blockaded; during 1841–42, there were 155,000 chests, and during the year following, there were 175,000. We here exhibit the amount of the exports of the principal staple, tea, in American vessels during the periods stated.

Season.	Chests of black.	Chests of green.	Total chests.	Lbs.
1804–5	54,145	41,844	95,989	7,679,120
1805–6	54,770	68,086	122,856	9,830,480
1806–7	41,265	77,262	118,527	9,402,160
1807–8	32,052	38,628	70,681	5,654,480
1808–9	3,033	16,496	19,529	1,562,320
1809–10	52,048	63,263	115,311	9,224,880
1810–11	4,072	28,622	32,694	2,615,520
1811–12	5,977	37,734	43,711	3,496,880
1812–13	8,776	9,184	17,960	1,436,800
1813–15	9,911	8,456	18,367	1,469,360
1815–16	52,926	43,614	96,540	7,723,200
1816–17	52,259	65,137	117,396	9,391,680
1817–18	43,870	77,393	121,263	9,701,040
1818–19	57,844	92,697	150,441	12,035,280
1819–20	56,164	75,323	131,487	10,519,160

The following were the imports into the United States:—

Season.	Lbs.	Value.	Season.	Lbs.	Value.
1821	4,973,463	$1,320,929	1832	9,894,181	$2,783,488
1822	6,636,705	1,858,962	1833	14,637,486	5,483,088
1823	8,208,895	2,360,350	1834	16,267,852	6,211,028
1824	8,919,210	2,785,683	1835	14,403,458	4,517,775
1825	10,178,972	3,725,675	1836	16,347,344	5,331,486
1826	10,072,808	3,740,415	1837	16,942,122	5,893,202
1827	5,868,828	1,711,185	1838	14,411,337	3,494,363
1828	7,689,805	2,443,002	1839	9,296,579	2,413,283
1829	6,595,033	2,045,645			
1830	8,584,799	2,421,711	Total..	195,206,125	$61,957,325
1831	5,177,557	1,416,045			

Our exports to Canton consist mainly of American cotton goods, American lead, ginseng, specie, and bills of credit on London. Ginseng, a valued product of the Western States, has been, for a long time, a prominent staple of export to China, and Turkey opium has been sold to the Chinese by the Americans, in small quantities, so also has quicksilver, as well as a considerable amount of lead. The trade in furs to China formerly constituted no inconsiderable portion of the export trade. From the northwest coast of America, the fur trade was carried on with great profit, and large quantities were shipped in our own vessels, by the way of the Pacific Ocean. The seal trade of the Pacific, also, formerly found large and profitable markets in China, but this, like many other staples of export, has become very much diminished. We subjoin a table, however, showing the amount of this trade for a series of years, which is much greater than at the present time. The table exhibits the quantity of furs carried to China by the way of the Pacific Ocean, mainly in American ships:—

1804–5....	11,003	sea-otters.	181,000	seal-skins.	8,756	beavers.	67,000	nutrias.
1805–6....	17,445	"	140,297	"	34,460	"		
1806–7....	14,251	"	261,200	"	23,368	"		
1807–8....	16,647	"	100,000	"	11,750	"	and land otters.	
1808–9....	7,944	"	34,000	"	5,170	"	3,400	"
1809–10...	11,000	"	.....	"	20,000	"	15,000	"
1810–11...	9,200	"	45,000	"	14,200	"	15,000	"
1811–12...	11,593	"	173,000	"	20,000	"	12,000	"
							and 145,000 nutrias.	
1812–13...	8,222	"	109,090	"	2,320 beavers, 2,000 l'nd otters.			

Without entering into a particular description of minor articles of trade with China, we would allude especially to the progress which is making by our countrymen in the export to that nation of American cotton goods;

56,178 pieces of British long cloths, were carried to China by the Americans in 1832, and only 10,334 pieces of domestics. We subjoin a table showing the number of pieces of British long cloths and domestics, exported by Americans, from 1832, to 1838.

In 1832-33, of long cloths....	61,953 pieces.	Domestics....	20,156 pieces.
1833-34, "	134,100 "	"	32,743 "
1834-35, "	71,639 "	"	58,331 "
1836-37, "	120,000 "	"	12,000 "
1837-38, "	1,600 "	"	117,000 "

The exportation of our own manufactured goods, has, however, gradually increased; for in 1842, and the early part of 1843, there were shipped more than 500,000 pieces of American cottons for the Chinese market. The opening of four new ports to British ships, by the late treaty with England, induced the belief that new and proportionately extensive markets would be open to foreign fabrics; and, in consequence of this conviction, shipments were made from the British ports, of plain cotton goods, exceeding those of the preceding year, more than 23,000,000 of yards, and of collored cotton goods, more than 5,000,000 of yards. The result of those shipments, from Great Britain and the United States was, that the markets of China became glutted, and in October, of 1843, the prices of the goods in Canton were below the cost of their manufacture in Lowell and Manchester. More recent advices, give us the information, however, that the stocks are diminishing. In order to exhibit a general view of the American trade with the empire for a series of years, we give the following table:—

VALUE OF IMPORTS INTO CHINA BY AMERICAN VESSELS.

Seasons.	No. of ships.	Tonnage.	Amount of specie.	Am't bills and mdze.	Mdze.	Total value of imports.
1804-05..	34	10,159	$2,902,000	$653,818	.....	$3,555,818
1805-06..	42	12,480	4,176,000	1,150,358	.....	5,326,358
1806-07..	37	11,268	2,895 000	982,362	.....	3,877,362
1807-08..	33	9,805	3,032,000	908,090	.....	3,940,090
1808-09..	8	2,215	70,000	409,850	.....	479,850
1809-10..	37	12,512	4,723,000	1,021,600	.....	5,744,600
1810-11..	16	4,748	2,330,000	568,800	.....	2,898,800
1811-12..	25	7,406	1,876,000	1,256,810	.....	3,132,810
1812-13..	8	1,816	616,000	837,000	.....	1,453,000
1813-15..	9	2,854	.....	.....	.....	451,500
1815-16..	30	10,208	1,922,000	605,500	.....	2,527,500
1816-17..	38	13,096	4,545,000	1,064,600	.....	5,609,600
1817-18..	39	14,325	5,601,000	1,475,828	.....	7,076,828
1818-19..	47	16,377	7,369,000	2,507,208	.....	9,876,208
1819-20..	43	15,145	6,259,300	1,926,500	.....	8,185,800
1820-21..	26	8,663	2,659,500	1,375,500	.....	4,035,000
1821-22..	45	15,597	5,125,000	3,074,741	.....	8,199,741
1822-23..	40	14,557	6,292,840	3,046,549	.....	8,339,389
1823-24..	34	13,069	4,096,000	2,219,127	.....	6,315,127
1824-25..	43	16,262	6,524,500	2,337,545	.....	8,962,045
1825-26..	42	16,431	5,725,000	2,051,301	.....	7,776,301
1826-27..	26	9,566	1,841,168	2,402,449	.....	4,243,617
1827-28..	29	12,090	2,640,300	2,754,597	.....	5,394,897
1828-29..	27	8,613	1,388,500	2,642,365	.....	4,030,865
1829-30..	34	11,670	1,123,644	3,187,638	.....	4,311,282
1830-31..	24	7,986	183,655	4,039,821	.....	4,223,476
				Bills alone.		
1831-32..	34	.....	757,252	2,480,371	2,457,184	5,695,307
1832-33..	59	.....	672,519	4,429,659	2,907,936	8,010,114
1833-34..	47	.....	1,029,178	3,656,290	5,202,033	9,887,501
1837-38..	..	.....	678,350	3,142,000	1,370,761	5,191,111

It appers that when there is a large amount of tonnage in the port of Canton, the tea merchants are usually firm in their demands, and the sales are ready, inasmnch as there is great anxiety to procure cargoes, and to return first with freight. When, however, there are but few ships, the merchants are anxious to sell, and the prices are low; importation is more moderate, and is attended with greater profit. In 1840, as has been seen, a large quantity of tea was exported from China, in American vessels, and the prices here were kept up by the blockade of the Canton river, and the apprehensions of a short supply for 1840–41, from the hostile attitude of Great Britain toward China, during a short time succeeding.

As it regards the opium trade, it would seem that it is conducted in much the same mode as it was previous to the late war with Great Britain. The subject of opium is not even alluded to in the late treaty, and although the agents of the British government profess to exclude it from the ports recently opened, there appears to be an implied consent on the part of the Chinese authorities, to its admission. Opium is now raised in large amount by the East India Company, and full cargoes are shipped to China. Thus the Chinese have not gained a single point by their resistance, and this pernicious drug is still carrying its thousands throughout the empire to untimely graves.

The negotiation of the late treaty, will place the commerce of China upon a new footing. By the British treaty, the new system of trade was to commence on the 27th of July, 1843, and four new ports, as we have already seen, have been opened. The increase of the consumption of teas and silks in our own coutry, it is believed by those who are practically acquainted with the China trade, will most directly cause the increase of our trade with that nation, and enable us to find a market there for a large amount of domestic goods. At first, we must expect the ordinary results of glutted markets and overtrading; for when an empire of such vast commercial resources as that of China is first opened, the enterpise of commercial men will be naturally directed to that particular point, and produce such results. We now pay for about 12,000,000 of pound of teas, some hundreds of thousands of dollars of silks, matting, cassia, and other articles of less value, by our domestic goods, lead, ginseng and other minor exports. That an important change has already come over the prospects of the Chinese empire, there is but little doubt. The Hong monopoly has been abolished, and so have the Consoo charges. The use of some of our own domestic products being introduced into the five ports, will probably open new markets for their sale. Their more immediate contact with the nations of our own time, will probably work some change in the manners of the people, and their modes of thought, and in the consequent demands of their commerce. The guns of a British fleet, although we conceive unjustly, have battered in the walls of their cities chinks, through which will stream the light of Christianity and modern civilization. According to the present condition of the China trade, our exports must balance our imports from that nation. The surplus funds of the Celestial empire, now seem to be required to pay for the opium which is cultivated under the auspices of the East India Company, and shipped to its ports. Were this trade abolished, substantial blessings would flow down upon that extraordinary people, and our own commerce, with that nation, would be placed upon a more prosperous basis.

Art. III.—SEWERAGE FOR CITIES.

THE SEWERAGE OF NEW YORK.*

The city of New York stands unrivalled for the magnificence and extent of her works for introducing water into houses; as yet, however, no provision has been made for its discharge.

The stream which was arrested in its progress through its own channel to the sea, and turned into the city of New York, through a well constructed aqueduct, has now no proper means of escape to the ocean; but is nevertheless brought in from day to day through an unfailing medium, and poured into the earth, to find its way slowly through vaults and cellars, and among foundations, to the great reservoir into which all waters descend.

From this source, and the consequent accumulation of rain and spring water, injury has already resulted, in the extensive partial filling up of cellars by the water—a serious evil lies before us in its probable effect upon health. The question is, when and how these shall be remedied?

It is but little the custom of America to provide in advance of actual difficulty, for dangers which proper care might prevent; but when we have examples, and the warnings of the old world, in regard to a particular evil, spread before us copiously; (examples and warnings founded on bitter experience,) it may well be deemed matter of astonishment, if not of just reproach, against our public men, that they are not regarded.

We do not think there can be any difference of opinion among reflecting people as to the fact that many of the diseases which appear in various quarters of our state, derive their origin, and others, their malignant type, for the most part, from defective drainage. This city, in addition to, all the natural elements of this danger, is obnoxious to more than usual suffering from having an entire river turned into the bowels of the earth, to linger there, until it can find its way through an unfavorable sub-stratum to the sea.

Dr. Thomas Southwood Smith, physician of the London fever hospital, who has earned for himself, by his published works, a wide and just celebrity, was called before a committee of Parliament for examination in regard to fevers in London, and he states that when a fever exists, its locality may be determined by an inspection of the map of London, in the office of the commissioners of sewers, "for where the sewers are, there the fevers are not, where the sewers are not, there the fever is."

London, for years back, has been aware of this difficulty; and by the most unwearied efforts, has been endeavoring to correct it. The extent, and excellence of her sewers has long been a matter of wonder to all of that class of travellers who go abroad with some useful object, and so famous have they become, that her example is about to be imitated in many quarters of Europe; the opinion being universal, that the system has the marks about it of the best intelligence and wisdom which are concentrated in that great metropolis.

We have no means of arriving at the exact extent, indeed they have not in London, of the sewers already constructed in the seven districts into

*The Mayor's message recommending Sewers. First report of the commissioners for inquiring into the state of the large towns and populous districts of England and Wales.

which that city is divided. In two of them, the Holborn and Finsbury divisions, there are three hundred and fifty-three miles of sewers, and of drains leading into them. This enormous quantity, in two districts only, enables her to outstrip, far, the boast which Rome for ages was able to make, that she was unexcelled in those important contrivances.

We remember as long as we can remember anything of Roman history, her famous cloucæ, or sewers, which were so capacious that barges were said to have floated through them. Their construction was attributed by many to the time of Tarquin, but such was their size, that they were supposed by others to be the remains of an older city, "their dimensions being considered disproportionate to the then infant city of Rome." Vitruvius, however, shows that the supposition was erroneous. "The Romans," he says, "were a peculiarly municipal people. When the external walls were built, the next object was, the best means of disposing of the area between them; the streets were set out to exclude winds injurious to comfort, and all the sewers and drains were well considered. Laws were established, which prevented individuals from doing anything which could interfere with the public health or enjoyment. These were the first and chief considerations. Every man in Rome had a cistern, and a constant supply of water for domestic purposes, as well as drains into the common sewer, which was discharged into the Tiber, and the whole was under the control and management of proper officers."

There appear to be but few engaged in the management of our public affairs to whom this picture of municipal excellence would apply; but its truth may be understood, from the fact, that after the lapse of three thousand years, these works still stand, though subjected to daily use.

The people of the city of New York, stimulated by the cry that municipal reform was needed, have borne into power a new set of men, and we are yet to see whether they have raised those into office who are above all petty intrigues for place, and patronage, and who come up to the dignity which appertained to the Roman legislators.

Perhaps no city in Europe, in the steadiness of its legislation, and the intelligence with which it is directed, equals the excellence of London, where all her works are solid and durable, as well her houses and docks, as her sewers. Boston comes nearer to that standard than any of our cities, where the qualities of which we have spoken, direct her municipal affairs.

In both cities, an extensive system of sewerage prevails, though limited in its uses in Boston, owing to the want of a sufficient supply of water—a want soon to be remedied by her inhabitants.

It would seem to be almost presumptuous, in any one, however enlightened and scientific, to doubt the value of the experience, or the wisdom of the practices pursued by two such cities, in the one case for half a century,* and in the other for nearly a quarter; and in both, persisted in with an energy, which shows that the best minds are satisfied with its efficiency and necessity; but yet, in the city of New York, there are those who shake their heads as gravely when this subject is spoken of, as though (to use the language of Mr. Webster,) they could shake something out of them, to show that the plan was erroneous.

* The sewers in London were commenced in the time of Henry the VIII. They were devoted to the purposes for which they are now used, in 1804.

In London, the sewers are used, not only for the discharge of the water brought in by private companies, but also for the removal of the offensive matter which is formed in the city, and in some instances for the sweepings of the streets. In Boston, they are used for liquids, and for comminuted solids, the want of water compelling them to more care than is observed or required in London. Boston is about to bring in the water from Long Pond, to enable her, among other things, to extend and improve her system of sewerage.

New York, in her arrangements for the introduction of water, far excels any other city in the world. Not only has she provided abundantly for the present wants, but also for the future growth of the city. There she stops short in her enterprise, with the plan but half completed. Had the commissioners been contriving a way to bring serious hurt upon the community, in its property and health, they could not better have accomplished it, than by pouring a large stream into the earth, without devising the means for hastening its progress to its proper destination; but such was not their intention, it being fair to infer from their reports on the subject, that some provision, in that respect, was expected to follow the introduction of the water.

The injuries to property are now occurring; those to health are to follow in their train. People are now discussing the question whether or not they shall fill up their vaults and cellars above the present water-level—a level, higher to-day than it was yesterday, and all the time rising; and others are considering whether it is expedient to take the water into their houses until sewers are constructed, the owners taking the ground which Mr. Quick testifies to as being taken in London, that without a proper means of discharge, it will be an injury to take it into the houses. Mr. Hawkesby states that "a good supply of water will be of little value without an efficient drainage, and that the use of the water, however liberally supplied, will be limited and restricted by an inconvenience attending its removal."

Those who observed the streets during the last winter, remember what quantities of ice there were, wherever the Croton was discharged, rendering the travel dangerous, and the occurrence of a sudden storm of rain falling on the surface, elevated by the ice, the certain cause of overflow into the areas. When the high bridge is built, this difficulty will be greatly increased, for then the supply of water will be immensely increased.

In every way does this operate injuriously to the city, which loses in expense for clearing away the frozen streets, and in the want of customers for the water, enough, perhaps, to pay the interest on the outlay for sewers, even if she constructed them at her own expense, which is not in any quarter urged, and is not expected. The owners are quite willing to do this, when the matter shall have been arranged by the corporation on a proper plan.

It never can be that New York will submit to such a state of things, as a final and complete arrangement; it can only be tolerated in that shape, as an evil requiring time for its removal; but the citizens expect that the proceedings, to that end, will be commenced, and commenced soon enough to show that whatever of energy can be devoted reasonably to the subject, will be employed.

Taking it for granted that sewers must be constructed either at the expense of the city, or of the individual owners, the question is, on what

terms, and how rapidly the latter will proceed with the enterprise, and save the city the necessity of engaging in it, in its corporate capacity, with its train of evils, public patronage, a public debt, and greater cost than individual owners would need to endure.

The question is easily answered. Compensate the owners for the outlay, by devoting the sewers to the purposes for which they are used in London and Boston, with fewer advantages than we possess, purposes which in New York are now unlawful, and made the subject of penalties, and they will very soon and very cheerfally go on with the work.

No public matter was ever started, except the one for the introduction of the water, which so entirely has the approval of the great body of property owners, as the one in question. It has been well canvassed, and is well understood; and the prejudice which seemed to pervade many minds against the change, at the first blush, has been entirely overcome; they are not only willing but anxious for the adoption of the London system.

It is undoubtedly too much to say, that all are convinced; some who have not examined the subject, have yet decided against it; others object for reasons that must be deemed without weight; one is, that it will injure the fish market!! another, that the earth, at New York, is of higher temperature than at London, at the required depth for sewers, and that it tends to promote more rapid decomposition, as if the objection did not apply with ten fold force to the present system; another, that the tides do not rise and fall as much as at London, as if it were possible to use the tide waters for cleansing, where the ground was high, and the grade good, or ever, except for defects, not existing in New York; another, that our present sewers will not answer, because the bottoms are laid in loose sand, as if it were out of the reach of human skill to spread a coat of cement over them; another, that some of the French sewers have become choked, as if it were possible to use them without water, which the French have not, but are about to introduce. The minds of not a few are so constituted, that it would take years to satisfy them that anything indelicate, offensive, or unhealthy, belongs to our present habit of constructing and using a small but conspicuous building, (not "perched upon a hill always," but always exposed to view,) in a way to shock those of delicate minds.

Underneath those structures accumulates the material which induced the Rev. J. Clay, in his report to Parliament, to describe them as "reservoirs of contagion." Read to them from the report to the queen from the duke of Buccleuch, and the able committee, of which he was chairman, what they so impressively state in regard to the effect of our plan upon the public health, and it makes no impression on their understandings. What that committee states, cannot too often be repeated, or too deliberately weighed.

"The medical witnesses," (say they,) "have brought before us facts in support of their strongly urged and unanimous opinion, that no population can be healthy, which lives amid cis-pools, or upon a soil permeated by decomposing animal or vegetable refuse, giving off impurities to the air in their houses and in the streets. They state the necessity of preventing all accumulations of stagnant refuse in or near houses, and of substituting a system of house-drainage and cleansing, aided by the introduction of better supplies of water into the houses."

We all know the mode by which, in England, their executive and legislative establishments proceed to ascertain the steps proper to be taken in

regard to any given subject, to remedy any existing evil. A commission is appointed by them, sometimes formed from the Parliament, and sometimes from the community at large, to take the testimony of skilful persons in regard to the particular subject, and report it, with a general view of the whole matter, to the body whence the commission emanated.

A large amount of useful and accurate information is thus collected from expert citizens; and when the matter comes to be legislated upon, it is all scrutinized carefully, and the laws have impressed upon them, not only the intelligence of the law giver, but the assent, in advance, of the best wisdom of the community. They may then be written "with a pen of iron upon tablets of marble."

Information so precise, and ample, on the subjects thus investigated, is not to be obtained in any quarter, so well as from these reports; and we may appeal to them, with a certainty which ought to overbear and put to shame, every opinion formed without the same lights, and on the strength of a prejudice, resulting from different habits. The committee which investigated this subject was composed of eminent men, who, during the year 1843 and part of 1844, patiently investigated the subjects committed to them, the drainage being the chief, and made a report to the queen, who presented it to both houses of Parliament. This report, with the documents appended, occupies about 700 printed folio pages, and gives, not only general views, but all the detail necessary to enable persons to form accurate opinions on the whole matter.

The general object of inquiry, so far as it relates to the sewerage, was the improvement of defects in parts of London, and the establishment of the system, wherever practicable, throughout England and Wales.

The leading fact deducible from the whole investigation is this: that flowing water is the essential element to the perfection of a good system of sewerage, and that without it in sufficient abundance to cleanse and purify drains devoted to the discharge of the refuse, they are more offensive than useful. "The drains furnish the ways or vehicles for transportation, the water is the moving power or carrier," is the language of one of the royal engineers to the committee. "It is indisputable," (says M. Mylne, engineer on the French works,) "that water is the best and cheapest means of removing all decomposing matter."

Where flowing water exists in sufficient abundance, the descent in the sewers is not required to be so great as with a diminished supply. Mr. Hosking, professor of architecture of Kings College, thus testifies on this point. "I have found, from experience, that sewers moderately well supplied with backwater, may be made with much less fall than is generally considered necessary, and less than this bill requires," (2 1-2 inches per 100 feet. "I myself directed the diversion of one of the large sewers at the western extremity of London, the Counters Creek sewer, for a mile and a half of its length; and for the purpose of obtaining deeper drainage at the upper end, I prevailed upon the commissioners to allow the fall to be at the slight rate of 1.63 inch—less than 1 3-4 inch in 100 feet, throughout the diverted length, the sewer being the course of a small stream, the drainage of the uplands. With this small stream, the sewer, with its slight fall, is kept perfectly clean; no accumulations of any kind take place in it; and I think I may assume, therefore, that a fall of 2 inches in 100 feet, with a good back water, at frequent intervals, would be sufficient."

Indeed, upon a perfect level, by collecting the ordinary flow in the sewers, by means of gates, until a sufficient head is obtained, the drains may be kept perfectly clean by the rush, the operation being called "flushing." "We have a sewer building on a dead level, (says Mr. Roe, one of the commissioners of sewers,) in consequence of the difficulty of the outlet, in that case we have placed a gate for 1,600 feet, and we are in hopes we shall do with a greater distance than that hereafter; but that is the greatest length we have had an opportunity of working in a horizontal direction." He also states: "We have found the system of flushing effectual on a horizontal line." The experiments presently to be given, will be conclusive as to the efficacy of this system. If we have not water enough to keep the drains free of matter undergoing decomposition, the plan ought not to be persisted in for a moment, certainly not beyond the steps necessary for an experiment, which can do no hurt, and may settle all conflicting opinions, there being none to desire the adoption of the London system, except for the benefits to be conferred by its success.

The great question, then is, whether in New York the water is to be had in sufficient abundance for the purpose.

The city of London, with a population of 2,000,000, has a daily supply from the various water companies, of 28,774 gallons per diem, which, for 177,000 houses, gives 162 gallons per diem to each house, and this, in addition to the rain water, constitutes the chief reliance of the city for cleansing the sewers. The tidal waters of the Thames are used for the sewers built where the ground is low enough to admit the tide, and the descent inadequate, but they are not, and cannot be used except where these defects exist.

The population of New York is 350,000, and she has 38,000 houses. New York, at the rate of the London supply, would require for her 38,000 houses, only 6,156,000 gallons daily.

Her aqueduct is constructed to bring down from the Croton the enormous quantity of 60,000,000 gallons daily, or over 1,578 gallons to each house per diem, being an excess of 1,416 gallons, for each house, every day over the London supply.

The capacity of the Croton to supply this quantity, except during the dry season of the year, is undoubted, and during that season it may be obtained, by using, in addition to the ordinary flow of the river, in the time of the greatest drought, the quantity stored in the dam, amounting to 496,000,000 gallons, and resorting to ponds in the vicinity, the water in which may be stored in reservoirs, and introduced at very little expense.

The minimum supply, however, without resorting to the ponds, is altogether sufficient for all purposes; that, during September and October, (the months when the Croton is lowest,) is 35,000,000 gallons daily, the dam supplying 8,000,000 of that quantity.

Major Douglass, the engineer who made the preliminary surveys, states that "it was on the 5th of September that I guaged the Croton at Wood's bridge, and it was then discharging at the rate of 51,522,480 gallons per diem; to which, if we add 3,628,800 discharged from the Muscoot, and reduce the aggregate in the ratio of one-fifth, to meet extremes of drought, like that of 1816, we have still remaining a regular running supply of 44,120,924 gallons per diem, without resorting to the 20,000,000 daily obtainable from reservoirs."* When the gauge was taken, there

* This was exclusive of the water to be obtained from the main dam.

had not been, at that time, an entire rainy day for sixty-two days, and the testimony of witnesses was, that the streams were "very low," "seldom lower," and according to some, "never."

For the purposes of great caution, a smaller quantity was assumed by Mr. Jervis as the minimum, and yet so enormous is it, that it furnishes 921 gallons per day to each house in the city. This quantity furnishes over 29 hogsheads for each 25 feet of sewer, 14 1-2 to come from each of the two opposite dwellings on any given street, enough to fill up that length of sewer, when built of the proper size, from four to six times per day, a quantity exceeding far any supply, for that purpose, known of in the world.

Not less liberal are the arrangements in New York for receiving and distributing the water. The receiving reservoir, at eighty-fourth street, holds 150,000,000 gallons, the distributing reservoir, 21,000,000. The water flowing in was shut off last year for fourteen days, and was diminished but one-fifth.

The mean annual rain at New York is 36 inches; at London, with lighter, but more frequent rains, only 32 inches. Upon a well constructed plan of sewerage, both the Croton, and the rain water, would be used for the sewers, the former, after it had performed its domestic uses, the latter, either from cisterns, (if any need for storing it existed,) or as it fell, care being taken to provide against any overflow in the sewers.

The obvious remark to be made upon this statement, as to the water, is, that unless there is something peculiarly bad about the grade of our city, we are so much better off than London, in relation to the supply, that her citizens would hesitate not a moment about devoting the sewers to the purposes we have mentioned.

In relation to the grade of New York, and its position, so far from being inferior to that of London, we have advantages nearly as great and controlling as those founded on our superior supply of water.

All the sewers of London must descend from the outskirts of the city towards the Thames, which washes but one side of London; the sewers thus lose the benefit of the sharp descent at the river side, which, from the necessity of deep cuttings through it, becomes an inconvenience. Some of the cuttings are 32 feet, requiring during the work a massive frame work to shore up the houses. A noble stream runs on either side of New York, and the sewers may run from the central elevation, into both rivers at a regular depth. This advantage is immense. In London, the sewers must necessarily be long, and many of them crooked, and have innumerable collateral drains, while in New York, they may generally be straight and short. It should be deemed a cardinal point to have them as free as possible of each other, a principle departed from most unnecessarily in connection with the sixth and third avenue sewers.

The offensive substances are discharged at London into fresh water, which becomes contaminated; in New York, into salt, which disinfects; one is distant from the sea, the other nearly adjoins it. The tide falls in the Thames so as to expose the bottom extensively, upon which the sewers discharge, rendering the air offensive; at New York, the bottom of the rivers is never disclosed. It is difficult to keep the tide out of the London sewers; in New York it will be otherwise, but requisite; and, above all, the London sewers can only be ventilated at one end; ours may be connected in the centre, and left open at both rivers, for the sweep of a current of air, and with enough water, be kept free of offensive odors.

Before the extensive introduction of water into London, and the change from the flat bottom to the eliptical shape for sewers, opinions prevailed in regard to the required descent, that have since been entirely abandoned. The old regulations required a descent of one inch and a quarter in every ten feet, where they carried off solid matter. These have been changed, and in the Westminster Commission, the rules now prescribe "that the current of all sewers to be built, be regulated by the commissioners, according to the surface to be drained." In the Holborn and Finsbury, the largest district, the regulations provide that the inclination "be not less than one-quarter of an inch to every ten feet in length, and as much more as circumstances will admit in those portions that are in a straight line, and double that fall in portions that are curved." These restrictions, although of comparatively recent date, it is found, may be departed from, and they are.

The surveyor of the Westminster district is asked, "What is the minimum fall you require?" "There are some of our main sewers with only half an inch to one hundred feet, others 2½ to one hundred feet; some less than that, but that is the exception, not the rule." The commissioner of the Holborn and Finsbury district states that "there are places where they cannot get a quarter of an inch in ten feet," and that they even build them on a dead level, as we have before shown. Much of London is built upon ground formerly a swamp, from which the tides are excluded by an embankment that gave way last fall, owing to the power of a freshet, causing much injury to property. The tides are excluded from the sewers there, by heavy flaps at the mouth. The pavement of many of the streets is lower than the water at high tide.

In New York, we have no ground of that character—none not considerably above the highest tide—and every little with a descent so small as the minimum grade prescribed by the Holborn and Finsbury rules. Stuyvesant meadows and Canal street furnish the lowest grades in New York; but with good sewers no difficulty would be experienced, even in those quarters.

For a long time, it was the rule in New York, to lay out the streets at a descent not under ten inches in every hundred feet, and many of the streets have that descent. From Union Square the fall is eight and two-tenths inches per hundred feet; from the Park it is still greater, the distance being less to the river. The elevation of Union Square is forty-two feet above high water mark, that of the Park thirty-eight.

The superiority over London, in respect to the grade and general shape and position of the city, as well as the abundance of water, is therefore indisputable. From our highest elevations, the Croton would come down with immense power and velocity.

The power of running water, at various velocities, is thus given by Professor Robinson, in his treatise on Rivers:—

That a velocity, at the bottow of a stream,

of 3	inches	per	second,	will	separate and lift up	particles of fine clay.
6	"	"	"	"	"	fine sand.
8	"	"	"	"	"	coarse sand.
12	"	"	will sweep along and lift up			articles of fine gravel.
24	"	"	"	"	gravel 1 inch in diameter.	
36	"	"	"	"	angular stone the size of an egg.	

The Croton is brought into New York at a descent of one foot and one inch per mile, for most of the distance, and at less than one foot for part of it; and yet, with this slight descent, has a velocity of about 100 feet * per minute, or 20 inches per second, which, according to the table of Professor Robinson, would be nearly enough to "sweep along and lift up gravel one inch in diameter."

The velocity of water running in an aqueduct is increased by the quantity and descent, and is retarded by the amount of substances in it, held in suspension; and so its velocity in sewers cannot be determined from that of the Croton in the aqueduct, without having particulars not yet to be obtained.

The descent at Canal street, on the surface, exceeds that of the Croton aqueduct, at the rate of 13 feet and 8 inches per mile; and from Union Square the excess is about forty feet per mile, enough with a well constructed sewer, and a sufficiency of water, to sweep away the heaviest impurities.

"What is the rate of fall (Mr. Kelsey is asked by the London Commission) upon the sewer upon which you have spoken?"

A. "It varies: some parts are about one inch to ten feet."

Q. "You consider that rate of fall a good fall?"

A. "Yes: the water runs from Margate street at such a rate that I cannot stand against it. It all depends upon the quantity of water. The same fall with a small quantity will be sluggish, when a large quantity of water makes a torrent of it."†

Mr. Beck, Surveyor of Water Commissioners, is asked before the same Commission,—

"Are your drains made on a particular fall?" and answers, "Where I could get the fall, I like it about 1-4 of an inch to ten feet, (the precise fall of the 6th Avenue sewer.) I think that is desirable, but there are sewers where we have only the 1-8 of an inch fall."

Q. "Have you found they keep themselves clear?"

A. "Yes, they act exceedingly well?"

Q. "Is that the least fall you have known?"

A. "No: I have put a drain on a dead level; that will not act quite so well, but the others do very well."

Q. "For whom did you put in that drain?"

A. "I put in a sewer for Mr. DeBauvoir, 3,000 feet long, on a dead level, which I was obliged to do, from deing unable to obtain a fall."

Q. "Do you find that sewer keeps clean?"

A. "That sewer has been built 10 years, and it has never been cleaned."

Q. "Is it subjected to any flow of water from any manufactory?"

A. "No: it is from Hoxton new town, or DeBauvoir town."

Q. "Does it receive any flow of water from the tide?"

A. "No."

Q. "Is there much discharge from the mouth of it?"

A. "It discharges into another sewer, in Kingsland road, belonging to the Holborn and Finsbury division."

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* Mr. Douglass' Report, page 404.

† The owner of the building at the corner of Carmine and Varick streets informed me that the current in the "Sixth Avenue Sewer," in front of his premises, was such that it would carry a paving stone to the river—its descent is 2½ inches to 100 feet.

Q. "Is there a considerable fall in the sewer into which that empties?"

A. "No: that is nearly a dead level, also."

One of the most intelligent of the witnesses examined on the Commission is Mr. John Roe, for a long time a Commissioner of Sewers, and the originator of most of the improvements in their shape, and the mode of cleansing. He is asked:—

"What is the general fall in your sewers? what do you consider a fair fall?" and he answers, "I find in the regulation of the Commissioners, a fall of a quarter of an inch, in ten feet, is required as the least fall; but we give them as much fall as we can. There are places where we cannot get a quarter of an inch in ten feet."

Q. "In that case, do you find flushing effectual in a horizontal line?"

A. "Yes"

Some experiments in flushing are given by him as follows:—

"Head of water 18 1-2 inches; quantity 45 hogsheads; cleared away 1 1-2 inch of deposit from 300 feet of sewer, part of the bottom on a dead level."

"Head of water 10 inches; quantity 20 hogsheads; deposit heavy; flush cleared away 1¼ inches from 330 feet of sewer."

"Head two feet; deposit in sewer composed of small pieces of brick, stones as large as walnuts, oyster shells, decomposed animal and vegetable matter; proportion of matter carried away 1 to 16 of water."

"Head two feet; deposit in sewer composed of soft mud, and all descriptions of filth, and a little silt; poportion of matter 1 to 6 1-2 of water. This was conveyed 2,400 feet."

Where the streets, such as 14th street, extend from river to river, the number of houses required to fill up the lots, is about seven hundred, one half of which, say 350, would fall on the east side of Brodway, and one half on the west, and each half would be accommodated with a sewer extending in different directions. One hundred and seventy-five of those houses on each side of any particular street, making 350, would have 5,775 feet of sewer, (taking the width of avenues into view,) requiring to be cleansed, for which their share of the Croton, per diem, would be 5,075 hogsheads, or nearly one hogshead to every foot of sewer.

We have, therefore, a much larger supply of water than London, and not only an abundant, but a liberal supply—a far better grade—immense advantages in position over her, and are without her disadvantages, which are numerous; and London hesitates not a moment about extending the plan with all possible rapidity, and refers to it, as that which exempts the city from disease—which bestows immeasurable comforts on the people—and produces the cleanliness that justified the boast of one of her citizens, that when New York left off cleaning the city, it was dirtier than when London, at any season, began.

In the message of the Mayor, the advantages enjoyed by us over London, are grouped together forcibly; and in presenting the matter to the Common Council, he has exhibited the foresight which justly appertains to his position. If the two points be established, that the grade is good, and the water abundant—controlling points always—the feasibility of the plan indicated is unquestionable, and the question arises, whether the advantages of the system warrant a resort to it?

The sewers must be constructed for the water drainage, at all events; in that is involved all the expense that would be required if the two

objects, the discharge of the water and the removal of the refuse, were united.

We have already the water power, which is the moving power, and the cheapest that can be applied. No expense is to be incurred for that. The question then is, whether, having the power, and needing the sewers for other purposes, we shall, when they are constructed, use them to carry off the refuse in whole or in part, and construct them with that view.

Capt. Veitch, whose testimony we have before referred to, thus forcibly presents this matter to the London Commission:—

"The supply of water in towns flowing from an elevated reservoir into main pipes, and from these spreading by branches through the streets, and finally distributed by service pipes to each dwelling, is just such an arrangement as would be most useful to cleansing away refuse into the sewers, if required for no other purpose; but the beauty of the union of the two subjects, is that the water upon such a system, after supplying all the domestic wants of man, is equally fit for cleansing away dirt and refuse, and at the moment it is dispensed for household purposes, it begins again to collect in the house drains, carrying all the house filth with it; the contents of the house drains unite in the street sewer, and gain force for greater scourage, by accessions from the street gutters.

It would seem not to require argument to show that the city would overlook an important duty, did it not unite the plan of removing the refuse with that of the water-drainage, when the union is to cost nothing.

"The supply of water to a town, and the discharge of the refuse, are two branches of the same subject," is the language of Capt. Veitch, to the Commission, and he expresses what ought to be apparent to every mind.

Instead of resulting in expense, it will accomplish a large saving; not of money merely, but—if we believe the medical witnesses of London—a saving of human life.

No other mode can be devised which will dispense with those "reservoirs of contagion," amounting, in New York, to over thirty-eight thousand—none other for dispensing with the disgusting labors of the *vidangeurs*, who poison the air nightly with the load of impurities which they carry to the docks, and charge the community for the work.

Did the whole matter rest on the advantage gained in these respects, it would justify the city in uniting the two branches. Let the community reflect a little on these matters. Take the case of the City Hospital, as one among innumerable public buildings in the city. The managers have built, with much care, a cess-pool on their grounds, which lie in the center of population,—and built it after an application for permission to make or use a sewer, was made to the last Common Council, but neglected in that body. The excretion from two or three hundred sick persons, gathers in the cess-pool daily, and there remains. If it were sent off by a sewer, it would reach, before decomposition, a good disinfecting agent, the salt water: but instead of that, the gases from it escape from day to day, and mingle with the air we breath! And yet the same thing exists with all our public buildings, our schools, hotels, and places where people congregate in numbers, engaged in some industry, and to a less serious extent, with all our dwellings. Is it not a great point, on the score of delicacy and health, to get rid of these nuisances and their poisonous exhalations?

"The principal gas given out from these deposits, (says Mr. Duncan in

his report to Parliament,) is sulphuretted hydrogen, the most deadly of the gaseous poisons, two or three cubic inches causing instant death when injected into a vein, or into the chest, or beneath the skin of animals. Nine quarts injected into the intestines of a horse, as a common clyster, killed it in a minute; and I have heard it stated, that it is difficult to keep horses in high condition in the neighborhood of large privies, where sulphuretted hydrogen is abundantly given out. Even when largely diluted with atmospheric air, it retains, in a great degree, its noxious properties. A dog was killed by being made to breathe one part of this gas with eight hundred parts of common air, and air containing only 1-1500th of sulphuretted hydrogen, proves speedily fatal to small birds. It is not a great many years since four men fell victims to the poison while engaged in cleaning out a privy near Brompton; and still more recently an accident of a similar nature happened at Clapham. Twenty-three children belonging to a boarding school at that place, were simultaneously attacked with violent irritation of the stomach and bowels, convulsive twitching of the muscles, and excessive prostration of strength, and two of them died in twenty-four hours. The symptoms were ascribed by the medical attendants, to the inhalation of sulphuretted hydrogen from the contents of a foul cess-pit, which had been scattered over a garden adjoining the children's play-ground."

The London report is filled with evidence of a similar kind, and hence Mr. Hawksley's testimony—"I take it for granted, that it is now conceded by every one, that cess-pools and privy-pits are not less detrimental to the health, than unpleasant to the senses, and that there cannot be a very healthy population living in the vicinity of such receptacles." And hence also, Dr. T. Southwood Smith's—"I take it for granted, that the overwhelming evidence which has been adduced to show how much the health, and even the life of the community depends on this [the drainage embracing the removal of the refuse] has entered into the legislative mind, as it has into the public mind."

As to the labors of the *vidangeurs*, it is deemed sufficient to refer to the testimony of M. Mylne, the Parisian engineer.

Q. "If you had been enabled to carry the water into the houses in Paris, [he is now engaged in that work,] would it have led to the general application of the water-closet system, as a system of cleansing?"

A. "Decidedly so: the houses were already prepared for the introduction of the system, and it was much wished for by the inhabitants; and sewers were then being constructed in all parts of the city."

Q. "Then the completion of the system, or the joining on of the system of cleansing with the system of supplying water by machinery, would have led to the supercession of the labor of the body of *vidangeurs*, or scavengers, as well as of the labor of the *porteurs d'eau?*"

A. "Decidedly; it would not only have superseded the labors of the *vidangeurs*, but the nuisance of their labors, which every one who has passed the streets of Paris at the night will be well aware of;—nothing improves the habits so much, nothing civilizes a population so much, as improvements in the mode of removing the excretal."

The plan offered for adoption is free of these unpleasant features, and offers no offence to the most delicate mind. It is cleanly, healthful and economical, and accomplishes the improvement which M. Mylne so well describes.

But there are other advantages of an essential character, to result from the union which has been recommended.

Few more important services can be rendered to a community constituted as ours is, than to lighten materially the household labors; such a benefit reaches to all classes of our citizens—the rich, in adding to their comforts; the middle classes, in making them independent, in some degree, of the domestics; and the poor, in enabling them to do the work of their household with greater convenience. It has been said, that the introduction of the Croton into our dwellings has greatly diminished domestic labors. To provide the means for its removal, along with such offensive material as is formed in the houses and kitchens, will be equally important, and a great blessing, (remedying as it will the unpleasant and exposing part of household duties,) and the legislator who secures this to the people, ought to be deemed as much a public benefactor, as he who diminishes the weight of heavy taxation, or so helps the productive powers of a community, that, with the same amount of labor, they may procure additional comforts.

The liberation of no inconsiderable quantity of land in our yards—as well those of stores as of dwellings—now devoted to outhouses, is a matter of no little consequence, in view of its use for other purposes. Indeed, in many places, the saving in this respect will much more than pay for any possible expense for constructing the sewers, which cannot exceed twenty-five or thirty dollars per lot—a sum too small, in view of the advantages we have named, to be much considered.

It would be easy to press into use a great variety of advantages to follow the adoption of this measure, but our readers will themselves, many of them, in the course of their reflections, fall upon them quite easily, and it will be useless to anticipate their movements in that regard. It will also be unnecessary to go into the particulars of the size, depth, ventilation, and mode of piercing the sewers, as this concerns a more advanced stage of the question; suffice it to say, that in London these matters have been arranged with great precision, and very satisfactorily.

It is a subject full of interest to the citizen, and when those who have not fully considered it bring their minds to act upon it, there will be but little hesitation in forming the true judgment, and still less in demanding from the Common Council the fulfilment of their wishes.

It is too large a subject to be trifled with, too important to be postponed; disease will soon lay its hand upon the city, to the loss of that reputation for health which now constitutes an element—an important element—in the value of its property, the extent of its business, and its general prosperity.

If we have not committed our interests into the hands of Lilliputians—who can for a time bind them down, acting on their small conceits and trifling prejudices—we shall presently have this matter placed on its true footing, and large, well considered and manly views will prevail.

New York, by her position and rank, is entitled to insist that her municipal legislators shall come up to the point of excellence which is required to maintain her great character; and we trust, confidently, that experience will show they have the loftiness which befits them for the task.

Art. IV.—RAILROAD IRON AND THE TARIFF.

At a meeting held at the rooms of the American Institute, in the city of New York, (March, 1844,) the subject proposed for discussion was—"Can America supply her iron, or is she so situated by nature, that she must send 3,000 miles and procure it from the mines of England, or still further, from the mines of Russia? An inquiry into the items of some of the debts of the western states, probably show that they have bought of the English traders, railroad iron at from $65 to $75 per ton, and for carrying it into the interior, paid from $20 to $25 per ton more, which, at this time is offered by the same English traders at $23 75 per ton. Might not this railroad iron as well have been made on our western waters, at about $20 per ton, with but little cost of transportation, and no repudiation?" This question being under discussion, it was earnestly contended by the president and many members of the institute, that the present extravagant duty of $25 should be maintained, and that no reduction should be countenanced, and that even prohibition of foreign railroad iron, to encourage our own iron master, was the sound policy of the government. In this discussion, the writer maintained, that unless there was some reduction, the present duty would retard, if not paralyze a number of important works that had been commenced, on the faith that they could import their iron, as many of the neighboring works had done, free of duty, with such facilities of credit in their purchase, on adequate security, as could only be procured from the rich iron master of Wales, who at low rates of interest, 2 to 3 per cent, had invested large sums in costly machinery, to make the iron rails of Great Britain.

In the place of the extravagant tariff of $25 per ton, the question to be asked should be, is it not the duty of the United States government, to legislate "for the greatest good of the greatest number." I also contended, that the government should encourage railways.

1st. To connect, and bind together the Union.

2d. As avenues for defence, and for internal commerce.

3d. To transport the mails, at cheap rates, from one end of this wide and extending republic to the other, and thereby continue the post-office department.

Now, if this view is correct, are not railways of more consequence to foster, than the interest of the iron master in the least profitable part of his business, by the imposition of a duty of $25 per ton, or about 100 per cent on the cost of railroad iron, for the manufacture of which, in quantities, and of the various forms of edge rail, we are not prepared, with machinery, nor with the large amount of capital required to construct suitable works.

To sustain the foregoing, I will endeavor to give a few of the reasons that should induce the iron master not to claim any protection on the importation of the substantial edge rail, and certainly at no rate to exceed the duty on scrap iron, ($10 per ton.)

First. I will admit that we can make railroad iron, but that it is not for the interest of the whole people. The American iron master, situated far in the interior, requires railways to the mines of coal and iron, to bring them together. Railways to him are as important to reach the main market, on the seaboard, as the water power and roller, to fashion the iron for the wants of the artizan.

We require the immediate construction of at least 2,500 miles of railway, to and over the Alleghany mountains, and through regions where there are no navigable streams, in proximity to the coal and iron. The mines are generally situated high above tide water, on the eastern and western slopes, inaccessible to cheap transportation, except by railways.

It is calculated that the several lines of railways completed and in use in the United States, some with a double, but a majority with single tracks, having the flat bar, that should be replaced with the edge rail, number 4,000 miles, or say equal to 5,000 miles of single track. They have cost, to include grading, superstructure, iron rails, and motive power, above $125,000,000. Of this sum, about $26,000,000 has been expended for iron imported from England. In order to render these several lines of railways useful to the government, to cement the Union, for defence, and for the rapid transmission of the mails, it is necessary to construct, without delay, at least 2,500 miles, and three times this number, to complete our system.

If these railways are constructed, as they should be, with the heavy ⌶ or T iron rail, instead of the flat bar, or "snake head," the number of tons of iron required during the next ensuing six years, will not fall short of 250,000 tons, exclusive of the large quantity necessary for the construction of locomotives, sheet iron cars, spikes, springs, &c., the manufacture and demand for which, is created by the construction of railways.

Under this view, I would ask if it is possible to procure capital to construct furnaces, forges, rollers, &c., to supply this quantity of iron, as fast as it may be wanted? The estimate is certainly a small one, as double this quantity should be required, to re-lay the roads, now using the condemned flat bar. During the next six years, the seaboard, or main base line of all our railways, should be extended from Maine to New Orleans, with branches through the states of New, York Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia and Tennessee, to St. Louis—all so important to connect the agricultural and manufacturing interests of the western with the Atlantic states.

By many it is contended, and with much plausibility, from the nationality of the object, that the general government shall have an interest in, and to an reasonable extent, (for government purposes,) control the state railroad incorporations. No law of Congress can reach this subject, except in the district of Columbia, and bv the consent of the states. It is contended by some, that while these several companies are weak, and overwhelmed with debt, as they generally are, that Congress should aid them by some general law, with a bonus of say to the extent of $2,000 to $3,000 per mile—conditioned that the post-office, war and navy departments, can use them, at fair, and preferred rates. Others propose, that on all main lines, completed, or others that can give security for the same, the post-office department alone, could afford to allow the interest of $5,000 per annum. This rate, $300, is not half what the British government now pay their main lines, to transmit her penny letters, with the ounce of matter from one end of the kingdom to the other.

Second. I contend it is not for the interest of the iron master in this country, to roll the edge rail, in its various expensive forms, because, all the capital he can procure is required, and will be, for many years, to construct works to supply the demand for iron in more saleable forms. It is not generally known, that the requisite machinery to roll the edge rail,

60 pounds to the yard, and 18 feet long, is very expensive. It requires four or five times the capital for rollers, and for water power, that is necessary to produce round bar and sheet iron, of the usual saleable sizes and forms.

There is another consideration, that will prevent our iron master from embarking much capital in the manufacture of railroad iron. It is the uncertainty of demand, and of course, its price. The demand will vary, from the difficulty that exists to procure capital, to prosecute railways of acknowledged importance; works believed to be highly profitable in their direct and incidental benefits. In the city of New York, the Erie railroad, the Elizabethport and Somerville, and the New York and Albany railroads, all leading to, or through iron districts: the Erie and Somerville leads to inexhaustible quantities of both iron and coal, in immediate proximity; the New York and Albany, to the best American and Salsbury iron. These, and other railways, are necessary to the iron master, and to develope our resources, even if the rails are borrowed from England, imported duty free, and their cost paid for out of the earnings of these roads, carrying our iron from the interior to the artizan, at cheap rates, and not at $20 to $25 per ton, as stated by the American Institute, by the present conveyance, to reach to the western states. This rate of freight, even without a duty of $25 per ton, rates amply adequate to protect the western iron master, for western railroads, if for their interest to manufacture railroad iron. But for the facilities granted to the Philadelphia and Reading railroad company, (to import their iron free of duty, and on a liberal and extended credit,) the Pennsylvania iron master would not have had this iron avenue—open at all seasons—to regulate the high price of freight, charged prior to its construction, by the Schuylkill canal, to get his iron to market.

Among the many articles manufactured in this country from iron, created by the construction of ralways, as stated, are locomotives and sheet iron cars, made entirely of iron, conveying five tons, and costing less than the wooden car, This improvement in cars, with that of the engines of 16 1-2 tons, all drivers, has reduced to a certainty the superiority of a railway over a canal, situated as the Philadelphia and Reading railroad, with a level or descending grade. This road, to commence its business, has already about 50 locomotives, and 2,500 cars, that have cost, with tools for the workshops, at least $900,000. Before three years have elapsed, this company will require double the motive power now employed, to supply the increasing demand for hard coal.

The Philadelphia and Reading railway was projected as much to benefit the iron master, as to regulate the price of coal, to the steam cotton mills, and to the artizans on the Schuylkill and in Philadelphia. This it has effectually done, and to the estimated value of at least $1,500,000 per annum. This railway, therefore, has been the poor man's friend, as well as the manufacturers, in situations that can only be approached by "this better improvement of the age." Viewing it in this light, it comes with an ill grace from the iron master of Pennsylvania, on the Columbia and Pottsville railroad, to contend that his neighbor of the Lehigh, or other avenues to market, must buy their iron for railways of them, cash in hand, protected with $25 duty, when it should be imported free. Why should the Central Georgia railroad, and other railroads leading into the rich iron and coal regions of Tennessee, Missouri, and other states, be pre-

vented from importing their railroad iron, with every facility to pay for it, merely to build up the favored iron masters of Pennsylvania and of Maryland, who have been so fortunate as to get from abroad, duty free, their iron rails, up to their limited works, by creating debts that in some cases they do not pay the interest on?

The Emperor of all the Russias, with coal and iron in abundance, considers it sound policy to send his gold collected on the Ural mountains, to buy the cheap railroad iron rolled in Wales, to improve his avenues for commerce, and means for offence and defence. France, we believe, now imports her railroad iron, and mainly, her locomotives. The government do not build or manage railways. Louis Philippe, after getting Paris fortified, has, with his Chambers, agreed upon a general law, in aid of private incorporations, in preference to the construction and management of railways by the government; by which they agree to procure and pay for the land, for the right of way, and to grade the same, being generally about five-eights the cost of railways, on the condition that private incorporations, under liberal charters, are to purchase and place on the road bed the wooden superstructure, iron rails, cars and engines. To these private incorporations, and to foment the construction of railways in every direction from Paris, the government, in a spirit of liberality, allow out of the nett earnings of the road, exclusive of any interest on the advance of the government, for the right of way and road bed, a moderate interest, 3 to 4 per cent on the investment of the private corporators, after which, the remaining surplus nett earnings of the road is divided between the government and the corporation in proportion to their several investments. Prior to 1843, France had but 560 miles of roads commenced and completed; now, the finished works, and those actually commenced during the year, number 1,800 miles, and are estimated to cost 850,000,000 of francs; and of this sum, the government are to furnish 500,000,000 of francs. The railroads, all over the kingdom of France, projected to unite the Mediteranean with the Atlantic, and with her several frontier fortifications, and for which charters are granted, are estimated to cost $235,000,000. The governments of Prussia and of Austria, on a number of important works, guarantee to private railroad corporations, an interest varying of from 4 to 5 per cent. Great Britain, with private enterprize alone, unaided by the government, except through the post-office department, where she gets value recieved, has expended under 43 incorporations, or 1,860 miles of road, £60,000,000, or $300,000,000. Individuals in England and Ireland have projected 2,000 miles of road, and the shares are already taken up, and held above par, in roads that are estimated to cost the further sum of $250,000,000. The government of Belgium, after trying high duties on railroad iron, to force its manufacture, for the 450 miles of railway that have been built and managed by the Belgian government, as military avenues, radiating from Mallines, near Brussels, the centre of the kingdom, has abandoned this policy, and now grants charters to extend and connect the villages with these main avenues for commerce and for defence.

In this view of the great importance of railways, and an interest in them, to control the rapid transmission of the mails by the government, at cheap rates of postage, and thus supercede private enterprise, I look forward with confidence, that the present Congress will not separate without taking off the present duty on railroad iron, or reducing it to $10 or

less; and then, if our iron master must be protected for revenue, let the advance be gradual, after two or three years from this date, as a notice to the present railroad companies, who have commenced their works, to finish them, or be subject thereafter to a protective duty, if required, for revenue. J. E. B.

Art. V.—TREATY OF THE GERMANIC CONFEDERATION.

In the last number of the Merchants' Magazine, an able communnication appeared upon the rejection of the Zoll Verein Treaty, or Treaty of the Germanic Confederation, by the Senate of the United States. It was negotiated by Mr. Wheaton, our Minister at the Court of Berlin, whose merits appear to be as highly appreciated in Europe as in this country. As it is probable that, under the new administration, the subject may again be renewed by the free trade party, it is highly important that all the particulars of the treaty should be known, as well as the causes of its rejection. The intelligent body of merchants will have a great influence in the decision of this important question. We propose, therefore, to give the whole treaty, which occupies little space, and the reasons for its rejection. Many of the articles of the treaty are not mentioned, and the principal causes of its rejection not alluded to.

Art. 1. The United States agree not to impose duties on the importation of the following articles, the growth, produce, and manufacture of the Germanic Confederation of Customs and Commerce, exceeding

I. Twenty per centum ad valorem on the importation of all

1. Woollen, worsted and cotton mitts, caps, bindings, and woollen and worsted and cotton hosiery, that is to say, stockings, drawers, shirts, socks, and all similar articles made in frames.
2. On all musical instruments of every kind except Piano Fortes.

II. Sixteen per centum ad valorem on the importation of

1. All articles manufactured of hemp or flax, or which hemp or flax shall be a component part of chief value, except cotton bagging, or any other manufacture suitable for the uses to which cotton bagging is applied.
2. All manufactures of silk, of which silk shall be the component part of chief value.
3. Thibet, merinos, merino shawls, and all manufactures of combed wool, and worsted or silk combined.
4. Polished plate glass, silvered or not silvered, small pocket looking glasses, from three to four inches long, and from one and a half to six inches broad; toys of every description, snuff-boxes of papier mache, lead pencils, lithographic stones, and wooden clocks, known under the name of Scharzwalder clocks.
5. Cologne water, needles, bronze wares of all kinds, planes, scissors, scythes, files, axes, and fish-hooks, gold, silver, and copper wire, tin foil, and musical strings of all kinds.
6. Leather pocket books and etues, and all sorts of similar fine leather manufacures, known under the name of offuvarkee fine leather fabrics.

III. Ten per centum ad valorem on the importation of

1. All thread laces and insertings, laces galoons, tresses, tassels, knots, stars of gold, fine and half fine.
2. Mineral water, spelter, and hare's-wool, dressed.

In return for this great reduction, it is proposed to charge no duty upon cotton, and not to advance the duty upon rice; to limit the duty upon lard to 137 cents on the centner, a measure of weight equal to 113 pounds, and to reduce the duty upon tobacco about a cent, and upon the stems of tobacco, about one and one-third cent per pound.

In relation to a duty on cotton, and the enhancement of the duty upon rice, the enlightened self-interest of the Germanic Confederation is equal to any pledge she could give us. Cotton is admitted at a nominal duty in every port in Europe. Lard is an article of inconsiderable value. With respect to tobacco, the committee of the Senate, in their report, say, "On a liberal estimate of the addition which might be expected in the consumption of tobacco, from this reduction of duty, in the states of the Zoll Verien, it cannot be counted as extending beyond a few thousand hogsheads—say from five to six thousand hogsheads a year. This estimate is formed on the rate of progression for some years of the export of tobacco from the United States to Germany. The price of tobacco, independently of the reduction which might follow in a diminished rate of duty, is already so moderate, in the Zoll Verien States, that increased consumption, to any considerable extent, can hardly be inferred as the effect of the diminution."

The committee reported, as the principal reason for the rejection of the treaty, that the Congress is the deparment of the Government by which commerce should be regulated, and laws of revenue passed. By the Constitution, it was limited to that department of the government. Though the Executive, with the consent of the Senate, may indirectly exercise the power, by committing the faith of the nation, yet it was never intended it should be exercised. All parties have uniformly acted upon this principle, as vital to the great interests of the country.

The second reason was, that it interfered with the reciprocal treaties, by which we are bound to reduce the duties *pari passe*, with those of the most favored nation. Instead of a diminution of revenue of $270,000 from the Germanic Confederation, by this treaty, it would have amounted to nearly two millions, as Great Britain, as well as other nations, would immediately have claimed the same reduction of duties. The treaty could not be annulled without a notice of three years, so that, in the event of a foreign war, the duties on imports, which are our principal resource, could not be advanced more than fifteen per centum. The country would have been partially deprived of resources.

The third reason was, that the committee did not regard the stipulated concessions of the foreign contracting power, as in any degree equivalent to the considerations by which we obtain them.

In the article before alluded to, the writer has given an eloquent and interesting account of the Zoll Verien, or German Confederacy of States. Their situation he has happily compared to the United States at the close of the revolutionary war. The objects of the union were uniform standards of weights and measures, and uniform currency. But the most important, was uniform rates of duties to be levied and collected in the cities which lie upon the sea-coast, and to be divided equally, in proportion to the population, among twenty-eight millions of people, comprising nearly as many states as form our Union. This has been accomplished, and Germany is now rapidly improving, and greatly advanced in her manufactures. 311,532 persons were employed in the cotton manufacture.

Her exports of manufactured cottons have increased 360 per centum in seven years ending in 1839—that is to say, to an amount nearly equal to one-sixth part of the exports of Great Britain. This the writer attributes to a high duty, "which is nearly prohibitory,"

After this statement of the advantages of a protective tariff to Germany, we cannot but ask the question, how the United States can be advanced in prosperity by a policy directly the reverse, reducing the duties from a duty of thirty per centum to fifteen per centum, to which they would be reduced by the Zoll Verien treaty?

With respect to the principles of free trade, the writer entertains a favorable opinion, and would be in favor of their adoption by the United States, if countenanced by the nations of Europe. If all restrictions were removed, each nation would have the advantage of their climate, their skill, and labor. But as long as England, France, and even the German Confederation, continue their restrictions upon every article but our cotton, it cannot be done. It would be a political suicide, with no advantage to any one and a prostration of the best interests of the nation.

There are two classes of those who profess to have adopted the principles of free trade. One class professes to make every article of foreign merchandise free; in effect, to abolish the custom houses, and levy the taxes necessary for the expenses of the Government upon real estate. This class, however, is small. The other class comprises those who are opposed to a protective system, but who propose to make a great reduction of the duties, and pay the expenses of the Government by doubling the amount of merchandise to be imported, upon which to levy the duty.

Let us suppose the duties to be reduced by a horizontal tariff to twelve and a half per centum, which would probably pay the expenses of Government in time of peace, by a great increase of imported merchandise—and consider the consequences.

In the first instance, the hundreds of millions which have been invested in cotton and woollen manufacturing establishments, in coal mines, in the smelting of iron, its manufacture, and other manufactures, would be mostly lost. The country would be inundated with foreign manufactures to a great amount, with no means to pay for the increased importation. Thousands, or hundreds of thousands of manufacturers, would be thrown out of employ, and forced to labor in the production of what foreign nation will not buy of us. The whole mercantile class would soon experience the revulsion, from the great redundancy of foreign goods. Failures would take place in every class of the community. It would extend even to the agricultural interest. The specie now in the country, which makes our currency equal to that of any in the world, must be exported to pay the debts abroad, incurred for goods which might have been manufactured at home. In short, we should have the same distress, embarrassment, and bankruptcy, which were inflicted on the country immediately after the revolutionary war, and the war with England in 1814. The same causes would produce the same results.

ART. VI.—ANNALS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.—No. IV.

1775. *Bill for restraining trade of Middle and Southern Colonies.*—Soon after parliament had passed the bill for restraining the trade of New England, intelligence was received, that the inhabitants of the middle and southern colonies were supporting their northern brethern in every measure of opposition; which occasioned a second bill to be brought in and passed for imposing similar restrictions on the colonies of East and West Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, South Carolina, and the counties on the Delaware. Whatever was the view of the British ministry in making this discrimination, the omission of New York, Delaware, and North Carolina in this restraining bill, was considered in America as calculated to promote disunion; but the three exempted colonies spurned the proffered favor, and submitted to the restraints imposed on their neighbors.

1777. *Bibles to be imported.*—It having been found, upon inquiry, that the proper types for printing the bible were not to be had in this country, and that the paper could not be procured but with great difficulties and risk, Congress directed the committee of commerce to import 20,000 copies of the bible.

1781. *Bank of North America established.*—A national bank was instituted. The plan of it was projected by Robert Morris, one of the delegates of Pennsylvania, a man of high reputation, and well versed in affairs of commerce and finance, whom Congress had appointed a treasurer. He assigned to this bank a capital of 400,000 dollars, divided in shares of 400 dollars each, in money of gold or silver, to be procured by subscriptions. Twelve directors were to manage the bank, which was denominated by Congress, "The President, Directors, and Company of the Bank of North America." To the financial skill and indefatigable efforts of Mr. Morris in the treasury department, it has been thought, his country was scarce less indebted, than to the valor of her soldiers and the wisdom of her statesmen. Under his auspices, public credit revived; the army was pacified; and a new impulse was given to every operation in the field and the cabinet.

1784. *Trade of New Haven.*—The foreign trade of New Haven, which had been destroyed by the late war, was revived. The number of vessels belonging to the city, engaged in the West India and foreign trade, already amounted to 33; of which number one was a ship of 300 tons, four were square rigged vessels, or brigs; the others, sloops of 60 to 110 tons.

First United States Voyage to China.—The Empress of China, a ship of 360 tons, commanded by John Green of Boston, sailed from New York in February for Canton, and returned the following year. This was the first voyage from the United States to China.

1785. *Treaty with Prussia.*—A treaty of amity and commerce was concluded between the king of Prussia and the United States.

1786. *Act for a Mint.*—An act was passed by the legislature of Massuchusetts, for establishing a mint for the coinage of gold, silver, and copper.

1788. *Card Manufactory.*—A card manufactory was set up in Boston, with a newly invented machine, essentially lessening the necessity of manual labor.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

MONEY MARKET—CONDITION OF THE COMMERCIAL WORLD—PROGRESS OF THE ENGLISH CURRENCY—BANK OF ENGLAND—PRIVATE BANKS—JOINT STOCKS—IRISH AND SCOTCH BANKS—INCREASE OF BRITISH EXPORT TRADE—BRITISH RAILWAY ENTERPRISE—BENEFIT OF RAILROADS—PROGRESS OF TRADE—LEADING IMPORTS INTO GREAT BRITAIN—OPENING OF THE CHINA TRADE—RUSSIA OVERLAND TRADE—FOREIGNERS IN CHINA—TRADE OF CHINA—CHRONOLOGY OF EVENTS IN CHINA—OPENING OF THE TRADE WITH CHINA LIKE THE DISCOVERY OF A NEW CONTINENT—MEDIUM OF EXCHANGE WITH CHINA—COMPARATIVE TRADE OF THE FOUR LEADING NATIONS IN THE INDIO-CHINESE SEAS—PROSPECTS OF THE UNITED STATES WITH REGARD TO THE CHINA TRADE—COTTON GOODS OF THE UNITED STATES SUPERSEDE THOSE OF OTHER COUNTRIES—EFFORTS OF THE ENGLISH GOVERNMENT TO SECURE THE CHINA TRADE.

The markets have recovered their quiet, and money is daily becoming more abundant, having already greatly fallen in price since the middle of November. The general prospect of commercial affairs presents an appearance of prosperity never before equalled throughout the commercial world. The long series of disasters that grew out of a combination of circumstances, causing a great degree of confidence and money to be very abundant in England in 1831-32, whence it spread to every quarter of the civilized globe, have passed away; and throughout the commercial world, probably, there was never a less amount of outstanding commercial credits than now. The consequence is everywhere a demand for money less than the supply, and therefore a low rate of interest. The change which the English currency has undergone, in its nature, is calculated to prevent an undue expansion of credits, and therefore to continue the present healthy state of affairs for a longer period than usual. The progress of the English currency since October, 1839, when the bullion of the bank was at the lowest point, and that institution was saved from bankruptcy only by a loan from the Bank of France, has been as follows:—

	ENGLISH CURRENCY.					
B'k of Eng.	Private bks.	Joint stock.	Irish.	Scotch.	Total.	Bullion.
Oct., 1839.						
£17,612,000	£6,341,791	£4,170,764	£4,960,731	£3,184,807	£36,269,893	£2,525,000
Dec., 1841.						
16,292,000	5,718,211	3,217,812	5,884,988	3,448,660	34,561,671	5,031,000
Aug., 1842.						
20,351,000	5,150,628	2,823,090	4,464,367	2,674,835	35,463,920	9,570,000
Jan., 1843.						
18,283,000	4,942,825	2,839,909	5,212,591	2,770,838	34,049,163	11,054,000
Aug., 1843.						
20,051,000	4,832,476	2,782,312	4,700,334	2,667,378	34,533,500	11,973,000
Feb., 1844.						
21,828,000	4,980,138	3,446,433	6,010,565	2,791,407	39,056,739	15,480,000
Sept. 11.						
19,880,660	4,338,000	3,158,290	5,410,421	2,940,456	35,727,827	15,197,771
Oct. 29.						
21,320,685	4,674,162	3,331,516	6,054,111	2,987,665	38,368,139	14,096,828
Nov. 2.						
20,819,765	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	14,035,752
Nov. 9.						
20,556,720	.....	.....	6,729,147	3,284,295	.....	14,115,629
Nov. 16.						
20,580,750	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	14,212,072
Nov. 23.						
20,178,475	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	14,365,580

Down to September, 1844, the old system was in operation, and for a period of five years the specie in the bank had been constantly increasing. The lowest point in the circulation of the bank was, it appears, December, 1841. The lowest point in the circulation of the United Kingdom was, however, in January, 1843, when the issues of the bank were 12 per cent higher than in December, 1841. This arose, however, in

part from the stagnation of general business causing but little demand for money at the country banks.

The last four returns of the bank are under the new charter. The institution had apparently undergone some contraction previously to the commencement of operations under the new law, but soon thereafter began to work out its notes. The joint stock banks also increased their circulation; and, with the private banks, are now very near the maximum circulation allowed to them; while the Bank of England has a reserve of near £7,000,000 of notes, which it is continually trying to put upon the market. All the increase which the English currency can experience now, must be from the Bank of England. It is observable, however, that while the English private and joint-stock banks are restricted to a maximum of issues, the Scotch and Irish banks are not so restricted. The general operation of paper money is to drive away the metals from the circle of its operation. Hence, the unrestricted circulation of the Irish and Scotch banks will have the effect to drive constantly the coin in circulation to London; within the circle of which no credit issues are now suffered, the currency being purely on a specie basis. The effect of this is already apparent. When the new charter came into operation, the country banks opposed it, and drew considerable coin from the bank; in which the coin diminished, from February to November, £1,440,000, notwithstanding that exchanges were in favor of England from all parts of the world. In the meantime, the Irish difficulties were settled, trade rapidly improved, and an immense speculation in railroads sprang up, creating a large demand for money. The country banks expanded to meet it, and the bullion is again flowing back to the bank. The harvests of England are abundant, and her export trade rapidly increasing in amount, at advancing prices; an operation which, for a long time, will tend to keep exchanges in favor of England, impelling commercial enterprise, and stimulating those large expenditures of capital in railway improvements, which enhance the employment of the people, and promote the consumption of goods. In order to estimate the extent to which railroad enterprises are now going on, we extract from the circular of a stock-broker, for November, the following statement:—

"Since our last monthly circular, there have been put forth forty-one new prospectuses of railway schemes, and the shares applied for in each have far exceeded the number to be issued. Taking the above forty-one lines into the account, the following will result:—On the 14th of August, upwards of ninety new lines, requiring more than £60,000,000 of subscribed capital to complete them, were put forward; to which add the above forty-one, stating a requirement of £35,265,000—together, upwards of 131, needing an investment of £95,266,000, with the power of borrowing one-third more, devoted to the same object; making a grand total of £127,020,000."

The probability is, as usual in these cases, that a portion of the capital will never be subscribed; but a large sum of money will no doubt be absorbed in that direction, and profitably so for all classes. In former periods of abundance and low rates money capital has left England for other countries, in subscriptions to government stocks, and in mercantile credits on English manufactured goods consumed abroad. Both these modes of employing capital carried with them the germ of a revulsion, by causing the exchanges to turn against England; thus involving a contraction of credits, to an extent that nearly checked the whole business of the country, and ruined a great many individuals. The expenditure of that capital now, in the construction of internal means of communication, is fraught remotely, only, with similar results. It has been the experience of railroad enterprises, that they promote intercourse, and greatly enhance business in the localities through which they run. Hence, the expenditure of the capital within the country not only promotes the welfare of the laborers, but improves the means of the people to pay an interest on its outlay, in the shape of dividends on the company stocks. In this manner, it operates like the public debt; which,

paid to people within the country, does not impoverish it in the degree which would be the case if a portion of the products of the country were to be shipped annually, to pay interest to the citizens of another country. A much larger sum of money may be disbursed in these enterprises, without endangering a revulsion, than could be safely invested in foreign stocks. The immediate effect is, by promoting the welfare of the working classes, to induce a greater consumption of raw produce, and therefore, ultimately, to raise the aggregate of imports to an inconvenient amount. It is also true that rapid means of communication, and a more general distribution of capital, tend to enhance the exportable products of industry; and, by so doing, to counteract the tendency to over-import. This state of affairs of England is rapidly augmenting the activity of the internal trade, and giving a more animated circulation to money; which, to an extraordinary extent, has for years been reposing in masses, until capital seemed to have lost its power. The prosperity of England cannot progress, to any considerable extent, without promoting that of all other countries with which she has commercial intercourse.

The progress of affairs throughout the world has been such, during the thirty years which have elapsed since the cessation of European wars, that all the nations of Europe, and the United States, manufacture within themselves those articles of which they stand most in need. As this manufacture increases, the trade with each other must of necessity decline, because their mutual wants diminish; and those which manufacture a surplus must seek other and more distant countries for a market, where the products are of a different but desirable nature. Thus, the leading imports of England are as follows:—

LEADING IMPORTS INTO GREAT BRITAIN, YEAR ENDING JANUARY 5.

	1843.	1844.	9 mos., to Oct. 10, 1844.
Butter.....cwts.	£175,197	£152,260	£138,089
Cheese.....	179,748	179,568	147,541
Cocoa.....lbs.	3,172,351	3,613,952	.....
Coffee.....	41,444,414	38,905,446	31,243,202
Corn—wheat.....qrs.	2,717,454	940,666	929,680
wheat-meal, or flour.....cwts.	1,129,852	439,832	854,362
barley.....qrs.	73,335	179,484	760,115
oats.....	301,272	85,010	242,222
Indigo.....cwts.	83,823	68,415	2,910,659
Logwood .....tons	18,581	20,892	17,701
Madder.....cwts.	86,382	139,143	73,926
Madder-root.....	82,879	102,216	73,284
Oil—train .....tuns	17,473	23,859	16,943
palm.....cwts.	524,242	420,277	308,798
cocoa-nut.....	49,742	68,577	27,826
olive .....tuns	14,095	12,139 galls.	2,105,712
Rice ....cwts.	541,414	453,379	.....
Rice, in the husk.....qrs.	41,420	19,877	.....
Flaxseed and linseed.....	367,700	469,642	3,413,323
Pepper .....lbs.	6,021,290	4,082,955	2,184,168
Spirits, rum .....gallons	4,619,804	3,729,678	1,550,782
Brandy.....	1,674,436	2,396,340	761,609
Geneva.....	323,744	360,220	11,209
Sugar..... .....cwts.	4,356,611	502,348	3,549,716
Tallow.....	1,011,370	1,169,864	593,624
Tea.....lbs.	40,742,128	45,344,449	27,792,052
Timber deals, &c., of Br. poss.....lds.	110,319	341,873	.....
" foreign.....	48,715	268,618	.....
Tobacco, manufactured.....lbs	39,526,968	43,844,893	18,432,471
" manufactured and snuff.....	811,064	1,137,531	190,075
Wine, all sorts .....galls.	7,216,113	6,773,795	5,458,149

These are all the production of warm climates, mostly of her own colonies, which consume a large portion of the manufactures of the kingdom. All the nations of Europe are, however, becoming exporters of goods similar to those of England, and in competition with them; and new markets have eagerly been sought for. Hence, the opening of the China trade engendered hopes far above what will probably be realized for many years. The opening of the trade of China, leading, as it has, to a commercial treaty, of a very favorable character, with that hitherto sealed empire, is an event of the utmost importance, and will have a great influence upon the prosperity of all commercial nations. They are, therefore, all eagerly competing for the trade. Russia has always enjoyed a large overland trade with the northern part of the empire; England has enlarged her business; France has sent a diplomatic and commercial delegation, with the same object in view; and the United States, through their minister, have concluded a treaty, which, although the terms have not transpired in detail, is said to be of a favorable nature. As this event commences a new era in the commercial world, second in importance only to the discovery of this continent, we will present a brief chronological statement of affairs. The residence of Europeans in China was never formally recognized by the imperial government. Their stay was tolerated merely during good behavior, and for a few months during the most active season. At other times they resorted to Macao. These nominal regulations were subject to suspension by edict, whenever disputes arose. All orders and communications of the government were transmitted to foreigners through the Hong. These disputes and outbreaks were gradually becoming more frequent, down to 1831; when a great deal of acrimony was apparent on both sides. At this juncture, the imperial government became alarmed at the continual increase of the quantity of opium imported, the consequent increasing demoralization of the people, and the swelling drain of sycee silver in payment. The trade, as appears from official statements, had been 5,000 chests per annum in 1820, 10,000 chests in 1830, and 35,000 chests in 1839, and its efforts to suppress the trade caused great ill feeling, and an evident determination, on the part of the English, to enforce the trade. It yields a profit to the East India Company of £2,500,000, or about $12,500,000 per annum. On one of these occasions, it was asserted that the lieutenant-governor of Canton had turned his back upon a picture of the British king, a Chinese mode of showing contempt. This seems to have commenced a series of events, the principal of which occurred as follows:—

CHRONOLOGY OF EVENTS IN CHINA.

1831..August 27. Lord William Bentnick wrote to the governor of Canton, complaining of the conduct of the authorities, and requesting an investigation into the alleged insult to the king's picture.

1832..January 7. Governor of Canton issued an edict, denying the insult to the picture, and refusing any direct reply to Lord Bentnick.

" February 9. Edict threatening to stop the foreign trade, if the introduction of opium was persisted in.

1834..April 22. The East India Company ceased.

" " 25. First free ship, with tea, sailed for England.

" July 15. Lord Napier, as superintendent of British commerce in China, arrived at Macao.

" July 17. J. F. Davis, Esq., and Sir L. P. Robinson, appointed second and third superintendents.

" July 26. Lord Napier, at Canton, addressed a letter to the governor, requesting an interview. This letter was rejected, not being in prescribed form of a petition.

" August 18. Edict orders Lord Napier to retire to Macao, under penalty of stopping the trade.

" September 2. Trade stopped. All intercourse with the British prohibited.

" " 5. Two British ships enter Canton river.

" " 19. A conference between the Hong and some English, decide that Lord Napier should leave Canton, and the trade be resumed.

1834..October 11. Lord Napier died of chagrin at Macao. Succeeded by Mr. Davis, and Captain Elliott as secretary.
" November 7. Imperial mandate interdicts the opium trade.
1835..January 25. Crew of the Argyle seized on the Chinese coast, and detained.
" February 4. Captain Elliott, as superintendent, went to Canton to demand liberation of the Argyle's crew, and was ordered away.
" February 18. Crew liberated.
" February 23. Some chests of opium seized, and publicly burnt at Canton. British trade continues through the rest of the year.
1836..June 29. L. P. Robinson recalled to England, and Elliott made chief of the commission.
" November 28. Chamber of commerce established at Canton.
" December 14. Captain Elliott supplicated the governor of Canton to be allowed to reside in that city.
" December 22. The governor of Canton sent a deputation to Macao to inquire into the truth of Elliott's statements, directing he be not allowed to leave Macao.
" December 28. The Hong merchants accompany the deputation, and Elliott returned a note to the governor expressing his satisfaction, and willingness to remain at Macao until further orders.
1837..March. Imperial edict allowing Elliott to go to Canton.
" April 1. Captain Elliott being in Canton, complains to his own government that Chinese authorities do not communicate with him directly.
" April 8. Captain Elliott wrote to the governor that some English seamen had saved seventeen Chinese from drowning.
" April 19. The governor instructed the Hong merchants to direct Elliott to be more respectful in his language, and to submit his communications to the Hong, that they might judge of their contents.
" April 22. Elliott addressed the governor, refusing to communicate any longer through the Hong.
" April 25. The governor consents to receive sealed despatches direct, but not to send direct. Elliott assents.
" September. Edicts directing Elliott to send away all opium ships.
" November. Despatches received from the British government, forbidding Elliott to send his communications in the form of petitions; which led to the suspension of trade. Opium smuggling rapidly increased.
1838..January. A native Chinese condemned to death for smuggling opium.
" July 12. Admiral Maitland arrived at Macao in a man-of-war, to protect British subjects.
" December 13. The execution of the Chinese smuggler resisted by the English.
" December 18. Captain Elliott orders all British opium vessels to leave the river in three days.
1839..January. Foreign trade re-opened.
" February 26. A Chinese opium smuggler executed.
" March 18. Commissioner Lin issued an edict commanding all opium ships to be given up.
" March 19. Foreign residents forbidden to leave Canton.
" March 24. Captain Elliott reached Canton.
" March 25. English merchants gave a solemn pledge not to deal in opium. Captain Elliott demanded passports for the English, which were refused until the opium was surrendered.
" March 27. Captain Elliott required that all the opium should be delivered to him for the service of Her Majesty's government.
" April 10. Lin went to Bocca Tigris to witness the delivery of the opium.
" April 20. Half the opium delivered.
" May 4. Re-opening of trade.
" May 8. Americans and Dutch permitted to leave Canton. Future dealings in opium to be punished with death.
" May 21. Balance of opium delivered—20,283 chests in all.
" May 24. Nearly all foreign merchants had left Canton.
" June. Twenty days employed destroying opium.
" September 11. Notice given that Canton river would be blockaded.
" September 16. Notice withdrawn.
" November 3. Attack of the junks upon the British frigates; beaten off with loss.
" November 26. Edict ordering cessation of the British trade.

1840..February 2. Lin sends a letter to the Queen of England, remonstrating against the opium trade.
" February 6. Lin made governor of the provinces Kwang-tung and Kwang-si.
" June 9. Attempt to burn the British fleet by fire-rafts.
" June 22. British forces arrive—15 men-of-war, 4 steamers, and 4,000 soldiers.
" July 5. The city of Ting-hai surrendered, with gigans.
" July 10. Rewards offered for the capture or death of Englishmen.
" August 11. Captain Elliott, on board a steamer, entered a river near Pekin.
" August 30. Conference between Capt. Elliott and the Chinese minister Keshen.
" September 27. Lin degraded from office.
" November 6. Truce announced by Elliott.
1841..January 6. Truce violated by the English. Edict in consequence, that all English should be destroyed, wherever met with.
" January 7. Chuen-pe and Tae-eok-tow captured, with 170 guns, and truce granted by Elliott.
" January 20. Treaty announced. Hong-Kong ceded to England, $6,000,000 cash to be paid, trade to be opened in ten days, and official communications to be direct, on equal terms.
" January 26. Possession taken of Hong Kong.
" February 11 Imperial edict rejects treaty.
" February 23. Hostilities resumed.
" February 24. Chusan evacuated.
" February 25. Rewards offered for Englishmen.
" March 2. Sir Hugh Gough takes command of the troops.
" March 12. Keshen degraded, and made prisoner.
" March 18. The foreign factories at Canton taken possession of by the British.
" April 16. New commissioners from Pekin arrived at Canton.
" May 27. Authorities agree to pay $6,000,000 for the ransom of Canton. Consequent cessation of hostilities.
" May 31. $5,000,000 paid. British withdrawn from Canton.
" August. Captain Elliott superseded by Sir H. Pottinger.
" August 27. Amoy taken by the British.
" October 10. Chin-hae taken. October 13. Ning-po captured.
" December 28. Yu-yaou, Free-kee, and Foong-hae carried.
1842..July 18. The great canal cut off from the river, and British armament anchor near the "Golden Isle."
" July 21. Chin-keang taken. Tartar general commits suicide.
" August 9. Fleet reaches Nankin.
" August 12. Ke-ying arrives at Nankin, with full powers to treat.
" August 29. Treaty of peace signed, providing as follows:—1st. Lasting peace. 2d. China to pay $21,000,000. 3d. Canton, Amoy, Foo-choo-foo, Ning-po, and Shang-hai, to be open to commerce. 4th. Hong-Kong ceded in perpetuity to England. 5th. All British subjects in confinement to be released; the British to retire on the payment of the first $6,000,000.
" September 8. Emperor gives his assent.
" December 31. Great seal of England affixed to treaty.
1843..July 22. Proclamation of Sir H. Pottinger, that a commercial treaty had been concluded.
" United States appoint Caleb Cushing, Esq., minister to China.
1844..March. Sir W. Parker, commander at Hong-Kong, arrived at Calcutta, with an offer of £1,500,000 per annum tribute from the Chinese government, on condition that the cultivation of opium should be renounced in the British possessions. This was rejected, because the profits are £2,500,000 now.
" July. Commercial treaty between the United States and China concluded.
" December 9. Chinese treaty read in the United States Senate.

We have thus thrown in chronological order the leading events which have led to one of the greatest commercial revolutions that ever took place. The effect of the discovery of this continent are now, after the lapse of three centuries, just beginning to develope themselves. It has required that length of time for the country to become settled, and to grow into an importance sufficient to make its influence felt upon the welfare of the old world. The opening of China to trade, is like the discovery of a new continent, ready peopled with a rich, industrious people, numbering 200,000,-

000, with wants in unison with the customs of the nations of Europe; and to supply which, is looked upon as a source of great future prosperity, and most nations are eager for the trade. The difficulty that presents itself, is the want of some medium of returns, apart from tea and silks, of which the quantity may, in some degree, be increased. There has, as yet, presented itself no important article of export from that country. Time may, indeed, develope some new medium of exchange—among others quicksilver, and tallow from that extraordinary tree, which, it is said, is to be found in abundance in the forests of China. Something of the kind must present itself, before any very large trade can be carried on; because what she now exports, is more than counterbalanced by the imports of opium. The wants of the population of China are undoubtedly large; and, inhabiting a varied climate, they must want those articles of clothing which are now made in such profusion in Europe. The comparative trade of the four leading nations in the Indo-Chinese seas, is seen as follows:—

	1839.		1840.		1841.		1842.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
British.....	1,271	523,556	1,411	576,607	1,730	717,586	1,571	640,196
Dutch.....	375	200,098	387	201,593	350	217,610	350	203,060
American. ...	497	163,578	472	143,602	538	163,414	549	161,062
French.....	312	96,658	262	79,193	348	105,152	307	88,373

There is but little doubt that the United States are destined ultimately to command all the trade in the Indian and China seas. The supply of cotton in the United States, including Texas, is far beyond what the wants of Europe require. The wants of China are, however, such as will absorb almost a limitless quantity. The cotton goods manufactured in the United States already supersede those of all other countries in those markets, and American lead has entirely supplanted the English. The English government hope, by commanding the exclusive route to China over Egypt, by way of the Nile and the Isthmus of Suez, (to effect which a negotiation is now pending between that power and the Pacha,) to obtain news several weeks earlier than it can be had in the United States; an advantage which will give her merchants control of the markets. Their diplomacy may succeed temporarily in this, but the march of events will ultimately give the United States the mastery. Her population is pushing, with a vigorous, rapid, and unceasing march, along a line 1,200 miles in extent, westward, towards the shores of the Pacific. The occupation of the vast territory known as the Oregon, is already going forward; and twenty years will not have elapsed before a powerful state will have sprung up on the shores of the Pacific. This great tract of the Oregon is drained by the Columbia river and the San Francisco, which debouch upon the ocean at a point six days, by steam, distant from the Sandwich islands—a group the independence of which is guaranteed; whose population is 100,000, mostly American; the surface, 8,000 square miles; of a soil the most fruitful, and a climate unsurpassed in salubrity. These islands are situated in the middle of the Pacific, on the great highway from Oregon to China. The great whale fishery of these regions is conducted mostly by Americans, numbering 200 vessels, whose annual product is about $5,000,000. This fleet, in the summer months, cruises between the islands and the coast of Japan, for sperm whale, and carry on a large trade in furs, &c., which are now sold in China, and the proceeds, in tea, sent home to the United States. The whole of this vast trade, and that of China, via the Sandwich islands, will be commanded by the State of Oregon. Those persons are now living who will see a railroad connecting New York with the Pacific, and a steam communication from Oregon to China. For the last three centuries, the civilized world has been rolling westward; and Americans of the present age will complete the circle, and open a western steam route with the east.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

MEMORANDUM CHECKS.

In the Court of Common Pleas, New York, before Judge Ulshoefer. Elihu Pedrick, *adm.*, *vs.* the Merchants' Bank of New York.

This is a special action on the case. The declaration contains four special counts, to which the defendant demurs, by a general and special demurrer to the whole declaration. If either count is good, the plaintiff is entitled to judgment on the demurrer. The second and third counts set out a check, drawn by one M'Farland on the bank, payable to defendant's order, for $876, with the word memorandum, or memo., written at the top thereof; and the plaintiffs aver that they paid this check to defendant, who defrauded them by taking off the word "memo.," which word made the check a mere memorandum of indebtedness, and whereby the plaintiffs lost that sum of money. The plaintiffs aver that if the word "memo." had not been taken off, they would not have paid it; as it was a notice not to pay.

It seems to me that writing the word "memo." upon the face of a bond, bill of exchange, due-bill, or the like, would not alter the legal effect of any such instrument. The word has no legal signification beyond that of noting, observing, remembering; and may be thus paraphrased:—Memo., that I owe A. B. $100, or some other amount; or that, sixty days after date, I promise to pay; or that the Merchants' Bank are to pay to A. B. the specified amount. But it is argued that the word "memo.," prefixed to an instrument, is a defeasance, and proves that the agreement is not to be performed. I suppose that when such a word is prefixed to an agréement otherwise complete, not of itself importing anything contrary to the agreement, and without meaning, it ought to be wholly rejected. Considered as part of the check, I have before stated the effect of the word "memo." As distinct from the check, it cannot affect it. If I am right in this view, it is doubtful if any custom of bankers or merchants can be offered in evidence, (if any such custom exists,) to give the effect of a defeasance to a single word. But the plaintiff relies on the intended effect of the check between the parties. But I seriously doubt whether the word "memo." furnishes evidence of any intention of defeasance. If you may not contradict the legal signification of an instrument by parol testimony, you cannot, out of a single word, a full special agreement of cancellation. Unless I am in error in this view, the plaintiffs could not prove the meaning of this "memo.," but by the written agreement of the parties to the check, made simultaneously therewith. The plaintiffs were bound to pay the check upon presentation, if in funds, on account of the drawer, whether the word "memo." was on it or not. If not in funds, on his account, they could pay it at their own risk, and recover it back from the drawer. But the plaintiff's case is mainly placed on the allegation of fraud against the defendant. But, assuming that there was an agreement between the drawer and the payee, that the check should not be presented at the bank for payment, yet the presentation of such a check is no fraud on the banker, however it may be a breach of the agreement with the drawer. The plaintiffs insist that the word "memo." would have put them on their guard, and that the removal thereof was a fraud on them; but, if the word was inoperative, its removal was no fraud. Besides, I think that the payee could not have recovered the amount from the drawer, without presenting it to the bank. (21 Wendall, 372.)

His Honor then proceded to examine the first and fourth counts. These counts do not set forth the check as it was actually drawn, with the precise word which plaintiffs contend annulled it; and they therefore contend that if, in judgment of law, the second

and third counts are bad, the first and fourth are not liable to be overruled, because they set forth the agreement of nullification and notice sufficiently, which is admitted by the demurrer, and because there is not anything set forth in these counts which can, in legal effect, sanction defendants' conduct, or repudiate the allegation of fraud. These counts set forth good causes of action. The only question is, whether the allegation of the loss of the amount of the check to the plaintiffs is sufficiently stated. We could only condemn the allegation of loss in these two counts on the ground that the plaintiffs paid the check in their own wrong, or that they could compel the drawer of the check to repay the loss; neither of which grounds could be supported under the facts stated in said counts. If defendant fraudulently erased the agreement or memorandum, as detailed in these counts, the plaintiffs had no right to pay the money on the drawer's account, and could not recover it back from him. And defendant, who is charged with misleading plaintiff by a fraud, cannot answer that plaintiffs paid the check in their own wrong. They paid it in consequence of defendant's fraud, of which they were ignorant. With evidence at the trial sufficient to prove the first and fourth counts, I think they may be sustained, but think the second and third counts exceptionable in substance.

Judgment for plaintiffs on demurrer, with liberty for defendants to plead on paying costs.

CASE OF A LIBEL—PILOT'S FEES.

District Court of the United States, in admiralty, September, 1844. Nash *vs.* schooner Thebes.

This was the case of a libel by Nash, a duly commissioned pilot for the port of Boston, against the schooner Thebes. It appeared that the libellant hailed the schooner Thebes, a foreign vessel, bound from Digby to Lynn, outside the line drawn from Harding's rocks to the outward Graves, and from thence to Nahant head, and offered his services as a Boston pilot, which were refused because she was bound to Lynn. He subsequently twice spoke the same vessel outside the same line, when bound from Digby to Dorchester, and offered his services as a Boston pilot, which were refused because she was bound to Dorchester.

Lynn and Dorchester have respectively harbors, not within the harbor of Boston; but, in order to reach them, it is necessary to pass some distance within the line above described; and it was testified by an experienced Boston pilot that he considered Boston harbor to extend to that line, because it was named in the statute and regulations respecting pilotage, and that a Boston pilot on board a vessel bound to Lynn would leave her on a point some distance within that line, called the northwest head of Lynn; and, if bound to Dorchester, at a point some distance within that line, near Thompson's island. The libellant claimed full fees as a Boston pilot, for the several times his services were tendered.

Sprague, Judge.—In the case of Commonwealth *vs.* Micketson, (5 Metcalf, 412,) it was held that the 11th section of the 32d chapter of the revised statutes of Massachusetts applied to the port of Boston; and that a pilot whose services are refused, when duly tendered to a vessel bound into that port, is entitled to full fees. It is agreed that the words "port" and "harbor," as used in the act, are synonymous. Was this vessel bound into the port or harbor of Boston, within the meaning of the law, so as to entitle the libellant to his stated fees as a pilot? The statute has neither described the fees, nor defined the duties of pilots for the harbor of Boston, but has left that to be done by certain commissioners, who are authorized to appoint and commission pilots, and to make regulations respecting pilotage. (Revised Statutes, ch. 32, sec. 15 to 22.) The commissioners have established the fee to be paid for piloting a vessel like the Thebes into the harbor of Boston, and one of the regulations is as follows:—"It shall be the duty of every pilot, after having brought a vessel into the harbor of Boston, to have such vessel

properly moored in the stream, or secured to a wharf, at the option of the master, within twenty-four hours after the arrival of said vessel, if the weather permits, without extra charge." (Regulations, No. 8.) The duty to be performed is entire, and the fee prescribed supposes the performance of the whole duty, including that of securing the vessel to a wharf, or mooring her in a place of safety. These regulations, made pursuant to the statute, are of the same force as if they had been incorporated into it; and they do not contemplate a case in which only a part of the service can be performed within the harbor of Boston, and where it must be completed in another part. In the present case, if the track of the Thebes, in going to Lynn and Dorchester, would be over waters which may, for any purpose, be deemed within the limits of Boston harbor, it does not appear that there was any anchorage, or any place used as a harbor for repose or security, or where a vessel could be moored in safety, in any part of such track. And it is proved that she would pass beyond the limits of Boston harbor before she could be moored or secured in the port to which she was bound; and if she had taken the libellant on board, he would have left her while still under way to her port of destination, and she must have sought another pilot for the residue of the voyage. Suppose a Lynn pilot, duly commissioned by the governor, under the statute, should take charge of a vessel bound to Lynn, outside the line from Harding's rocks to the outward Graves, and thence to Nahant head; the construction contended for by the libellant would compel the master to pay a Boston pilot, also—and that, too, for the service of perhaps but a moment; for if it be said that, within the strict letter, a vessel is bound into Boston harbor if she be about to cross any of its waters, it may also be said that she is bound out of that harbor the instant she enters it, and the services of a Boston pilot would no longer be required for the purpose of bringing her into it. Another result of that construction would be, that a Lynn pilot, who should merely conduct a vessel from sea, directly to his own port, would incur the penalty imposed by the 23d section of the statute for piloting a vessel into Boston harbor. Such construction is not required either by the language of the act, or its general scope and policy and ought not, I think, to be adopted. The Thebes was cleared for Boston, but was in fair truth bound to Lynn and Dorchester respectively, and actually proceeded directly to those ports. It is usual at Digby to clear for Boston, although bound to those other ports, and there is no sufficient ground to presume that any fraud or evasion was intended. It is not the being cleared for a port, but being actually bound into it, that imposes on a vessel the obligation to pay a pilot. Libel dismissed, with costs.

COMMISSION MERCHANTS.

In the Vice-Chancellor's Court, Boston, (Mass.) Charles Tyler *vs.* E. & E. C. Poppe. The defendants are commission merchants. The complainant came from England, and was introduced to Messrs. P. as a suitable firm to which to consign a large quantity of Sherry wine. On his return, he consigned to defendants, in three shipments, 1,290 dozen wine, valued at $10,000, on which Messrs. Poppe paid freight and duty, had the wine carried to their store, and insured. The wine was not sold, and complainant arrived here in January, 1843. He finally made application for an injunction, restraining Messrs. P. from "pledging, selling, or disposing" of said wine. He alleged that he had given instruction that the wine should be left in the custom-house stores, not only because wine and brandy are injured in reputation by being taken to a private store, but in order to secure the benefit of drawback, should he wish to export it. In order to secure this being done, he did not send any invoices; yet Messrs. Poppe procured false invoices to be made out, and swore them through at the custom-house; thereby, it is contended, committing perjury. The complainant, it is said, authorized Messrs. P., after coming out, to sell the wine at $6 a dozen, but they could not get that for and but $2 a dozen was offered.

The defendants claimed that they had a right to sell wine to cover their expenses and advances, amounting $6,428 36. The claimant obtained the injunction. The present motion is for an attachment for violation of the injunction, and for the appointment of a receiver; Messrs. P. having, since the injunction, it is averred, offered to sell the wine in defiance of the Court, and that their credit is not so good as it was. In answer to this, it is urged that an offer to sell is not a violation of the injunction; and further, that the credit of defendants has not been impaired—that they are worth $100,000, after the payment of their debts—that the Messrs. P. are Germans, but have been in the country ten years, and that the offer to sell, by Mr. Charles E. Poppe, was from a want of knowledge of the nature of an injunction. They also deny having received instructions to leave the wine in the custom-house.

The second letter directed the wine to be placed "in a dry bonded cellar," but contained no other intimation; and farther, that the fictitious invoice had been signed by the friend of complainant himself, in order to save the expense of the goods being placed in the custom-house store.

The Court, in its decision, stated that a consigner should be very explicit in his directions, in order to hold his consignee. The bills of lading were duly made out to defendants, and they obtained, in that way, lawful possession of the goods. As to the intention of having the wines remain in the custom-house, the instructions on that point were not sufficiently explicit. There is no such thing known here as a "dry bonded store," and the defendants were not bound to construe the term in the manner charged. There are matters of fact, however, in the case, which cannot be passed upon here. As to the offer to sell the wines after the injunction had been ordered, it is no excuse to say the defendant did not understand it.

The offer to sell, although it would not warrant the issuing of an attachment as a violation, would still be sufficient, in the discretion of the Court, to authorize the appointment of a receiver. The defendants, however, are men of wealth and standing, have made disbursements, and are able to meet any penalty for violation of the injunction, should such in future take place. But there must be no farther offer to sell till the injunction is removed. Motions for attachment and receiver denied.

AGENT.—ACTION TO RECOVER LOSS ON SALE OF COTTON.

In the Superior Court, (New York,) in the case of Joseph Wood *vs.* Daniel B. Rising. This was an action to recover loss on a sale of cotton. Representation was made to Mr. Wood, by the broker, Rising, that the cotton (200 bales) had been sold to Mr. A. C. Dean, as agent for Mr. J. Griswold, manufacturer, Mass. The latter proved not to have been the case, and Dean pleaded subsequently that he was a minor. Dean gave back the cotton, and paid $400 besides. The price having fallen, on re-sale, a loss occured of about $1,600. Mr. Wood charges Mr. Rising with fraud, in representing Dean to have been agent for Mr. Griswold, and brings action to recover the amount of difference. Mr. Rising denies having acted with improper motives.

The Court charged that if Rising, for the purpose of reconciling Wood to this sale, or for any other fraudulent purpose, held out to Wood the idea that the cotton was bought for Griswold as principal, knowing it to be otherwise, than has he committed a fraud on the plaintiff, which renders him liable in the action.

It is not necessary to charge a party with frand that he has been benefitted by the fraud. If a party has been injured by the wilful misrepresentations of another, he can maintain his action, though the party so misrepresenting has made nothing by it. If, from the evidence, you believe that Rising honestly supposed that Dean bought as agent, for Griswold as principal, and such turns out not to be the fact, his having been mistaken in this particular will not make him liable. Mere mistake cannot subject a party to the penalties of fraud. Knowledge and intention are indispensable ingredients in fraud

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

NEW BRAZILIAN TARIFF OF DUTIES.

By decree dated 12th August, the per centage of duties to be enforced from and after 11th November, or imports cleared for consumption, is declared to be as follows:—

SIXTY PER CENT.—Every description of manufactured and unmanufactured tobacco.

FIFTY PER CENT.—Ale and porter; brandy, cider, gin; hewn stone of every description; linen coffee bags, of every description; liqueurs, of every description; poinard knives, refined sugar, tea, wines of every description.

FORTY PER CENT.—Candles—composition, tallow; carpeting; carriages of every description, or any part or parts thereof; chandeliers; china ink stands, or sand-boxes; chocolate—ordinary; coffee bagging, earthenware. Not otherwise specified—fire-works of every description, furniture. Glass—ordinary plain wine, liqueur, champagne, and porter glasses; ordinary plain mugs and tumblers, from 10 to 1 to the quartilha; ordinary plain decanters, to 1 quartilha. (The foregoing described in tariff as N. 1.) Ordinary cast or wrought, or cast and wrought wine, liqueurs, champagne, and porter glasses; ordinary cast or wrought, or cast and wrought mugs and tumblers, from 10 to 1 to the quartilha; ordinary cast or wrought, or cast and wrought decanters to 1 quartilha. (The foregoing described in tariff as N. 2.) Ordinary plain cast or wrought wine and liqueur glasses, with cut or plain bottoms. (Described in the tariff as N. 3.) Square bottles, with stoppers, to 3 lbs.; without stoppers, to 2 lbs.; wide-mouthed bottles, with stoppers, to 4 lbs.; without stoppers, common green or other dark bottles, to 1 quartilha; chimneys, lamps, gunpowder, harness, ivory-handled brushes, mahogany and other fine woods, in boards or veneer; paper—folio post and imperial, hanging, painted, gilt, or silvered; playing cards; preserved fruits, dry or in liquor; ready-made clothing; scales, shaving and other soap, vinegar.

TWENTY-FIVE PER CENT.—Anniseed, biscuit; brass, sheet and plate; copper, copperas; fish—salted or pickled; flour, gall Aleppo; iron—bar, pig, rod, and sheet; ivory, jerked beef; lead—bar and sheet; leather—hog skins, kid skins, Morocco, sole, varnished, waxed calf skins; osier, salted beef and pork, saltpetre, steel, tar; tin—bar and rod, tin-plates.

TWENTY PER CENT—Barilla, embroidery of every description, not being of pure gold or silver, or being mixed with silk, linen, or cotton; handkerchiefs of linen, cambric, or cotton; lace—cotton, not embroidered, thread, or silk; regimental sashes, of silk net.

TEN PER CENT.—Books, charts, damasks, dresses, embroidery of pure gold or silver, globes, hair; instruments—mathematical and philosophical, maps, silk, net and sewing, velvet.

SIX PER CENT.—Gold and silver bullion, cord, lace; spangles, if of pure metal.

FIVE PER CENT.—Coals, gold for gilding, manufactured silver.

FOUR PER CENT.—Jewelry, of gold or silver; gold, manufactured.

TWO PER CENT.—Animals for breeding; diamonds, and other precious stones, not mounted; plants and seeds.

THIRTY PER CENT.—All and every other article not included in the foregoing.

The amount of duty upon most articles is stated in the tariff. All other goods are to be cleared by valuation; such being subject, as heretofore, to be taken upon payment of the estimated value of 10 per cent additional. The duties upon trans-shipment or re-export, are reduced to one per cent, subject to the approval of the legislature; and sureties must be given, until the decision of the legislature be known, for 15½ per cent upon all merchandise sent from Brazil to the coast of Africa, 2½ per cent if shipped to other foreign ports. The 5 per cent hitherto charged for storage and clearance, is included in the above recited per centages. All descriptions of merchandise denominated "estiva" goods, are allowed to be landed fifteen days, other descriptions two months, free of charge for storage; both being subsequently chargeable ½ per cent per month, or part of a month. Goods re-exported, subject to the like payment of ½ per cent per month, for such period as they may remain in the custom-house. The government is authorized to impose upon the merchandise of any country, in which the produce of Brazil is liable to a higher duty than similar produce of other countries, an additional duty, so as to neutralize the ill effects of the difference of duty upon Brazil produce, such additional duty to cease when the increased duty upon Brazil produce shall be abolished. A similar differential duty will be charged upon the merchandise of any country in which the produce of Brazil is chargeable with a higher duty if imported in foreign vessels, than in

national bottoms. The above recited duties on imports cannot be increased during the finance year 1844--45, but the government is empowered to direct the payment, in gold and silver coin, of 5 per cent of the amount of these duties, upon such articles as are chargeable with more than 6 per cent, and less than 50 per cent.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF PORTUGAL.

The following decree of the Portuguese government, respecting the commerce of the possessions of that nation, beyond sea—that is, out of Europe—has been officially communicated by the Portuguese minister plenipotentiary to the Department of State, at Washington, and is now published under date of Department of State, Washington, November 18, 1844, for the benefit of our merchants:—

It being necessary to declare into what ports of the provinces, beyond sea, vessels may be admitted, belonging to nations which allowed by treaty to trade with those provinces; and such a declaration being more requisite, not only because it is demanded by good faith, but also because, from the wants of it, serious evils may result to commerce; whilst, at the same time, it is indispensable to organize the various custom-houses acccording to the wants and the nature of the trade of each port; such a declaration being the more necessary, also, in order to avoid the difficulties which must arise, if the ports into which foreign vessels can enter, agreeably to treaty, be not designated, and for the security of the said provinces, and the preservation and increase of commercial relations between the different portions of the national territory; and it being necessary for the interests of Portuguese producers that the merchandise and articles, the entrance of which into the provinces beyond sea is entirely prohibited, and those whose importation be admitted when they are Portuguese produce imported in Portuguese vessels; and my government having, with these objects, submitted a proper project of a law to the Chamber of Deputies, which the multitude of affairs before that body did not allow it to have discussed; I, taking into consideration these reasons, and conceiving that these measures were specially required for the good of the provinces beyond sea, whose situation demands the immediate application of means proper to raise them to that wealth and prosperity which they can never attain except by lawful trade; using the facilities conferred on me by the first article of the law of May 12, 1843, having listened to the opinions of my ministers of state, have determined to decree as follows:—

Decree.

Art. 1. British ships shall, according to the stipulations of the treaty of July 3d 1842, between the two powers, be admitted into the Portuguese ports designated in the following Table 1.

The commerce of the other ports, not mentioned in said table, shall be confined to coasters, and thus shall be carried on in Portuguese vessels only.

Art. 2. The importation into Portuguese possessions of the articles set forth in Table 2, is prohibited; as also of articles produced in those possessions, and which are commonly exported, except goods produced in adjoining countries, and imported by land.

Art. 3. The goods and merchandise stated in Table 3, shall be admitted into the Portuguese possessions, if they be the produce of the Portuguese dominions, and be imported in Portuguese vessels.

Art. 4. Vessels and goods coming from the possessions of the British East India Company shall be subjected in the Portuguese possessions to an increase of duty equal to that paid by Portuguese vessels and goods in the possessions of that company.

Art. 5. British vessels are allowed to export to foreign ports all the productions of the Portuguese possessions, except Orchel; and all other productions, the administration of which is or may become the property of the state by contract, and which cannot be exported in national vessels. These productions shall all be subject to the duties or exportation now established, or which may hereafter be established.

Art. 6. In the ports named in Table 1, shall be admitted the vessels of the various nations with which stipulations for trade with the Portuguese possessions shall have been stipulated by treaty

Art. 7. All laws to the contrary are revoked.

The Minister of Marine, and of affairs relating to possessions beyond sea, shall have this executed. The Queen. Joaquim Jose Falcas.

Palace of Necessidands, June 5, 1844.

TABLE 1.—*Ports of the Portuguese Possessions in which Foreign Vessels may be admitted.*

Archipelago of Cape Verde—In the island of St. Jago, the port of Villador Praia. In the island of Majo, port of Inglez. In the island of Bona Vista, the port of Sal-rei. In the island of Sal, the port of Madama, or Port Martins.

Coast of Guinea—The ports of Bissan and Cacheu.

Island of St. Thomas and Principe—In Principe, the port of Baia das Agulbas, or any other to which the custom-house may be transferred. In St. Thomas, the port of Didade.

Angola and Benguela—The ports of Loanda and Benguela.

Mozambique coast—The port of Mozambique.

Portuguese possession in the East Indies—The ports of Goa and Diu.

Archipelago of Zoolor and Timor—In Timor, the port of Delly.

TABLE 2.—*Merchandise, the importation of which, into the Portuguese possessions, is prohibited in general.*

Artillery projectiles, incendiary mixtures.

TABLE 3.—*Merchandise which may be imported into the Portuguese possessions, if of Portuguese production, brought in Portuguese vessels.*

Powder, fire and cutting arms, salt, soap, snuff, and tobacco of all sorts, in leaf. Wine of all kinds, except champagne. Liqueurs, brandy, vinegar, olive, cocoa, and palm oils, blue calico. Scythes and reap-hooks, nails, plated ware, linens, smoked and salted pork, wooden furniture of all kinds, clothes and hose made up, and all other articles, the importation of which into Portugal is prohibited by the tariff law. Rum may, however, be admitted, until a regulation be made to the contrary.

NEW BELGIAN TARIFF OF DUTIES.

The Paris papers bring us accounts of an increase made by the Belgian government in the duties upon silk and cotton manufactures, and also upon machines imported into that country. The main clauses of the ordinance just issued by the Belgian government, will be found below. As regards England, the duties on cotton and silk manufactures are greatly increased; while the productions of France and the Zollverein are admitted at the present duties. The effect, will be to drive the manufactures of Manchester out of the Belgian markets, and to have them replaced by the manufactures of Rouen and Mulhousen.

RESOLUTION for the modification of the tariff of the duties on entry on machinery; on certain chemical preparations; on cotton cloths, dyed or printed; on silks, dyed or printed; on tulles, bleached, dyed, or printed, &c.

LEOPOLD, KING OF THE BELGIANS, TO ALL WHOM IT MAY CONCERN, GREETING:—

With respect to the reports made by the Commission of Inquiry, and sent to the government by the Chamber of Representatives, in the sitting of the 14th May, 1844, on the report of our Minister of the Interior and of Finances, we have resolved, and we hereby resolve, that the tariff of duties on entry be modified as follows:—

MACHINERY.—French steam engines, 15f. per 100 kilog.; steam-engines for navigation, 25f. do.; locomotives, without tender, 35f. do.; all kinds of machines and mechanism, not specially denominated, 25f. do.; cards for combing, 75f. do.; tenders, boilers, gasometers, &c., in iron or cast iron, 20f.; in copper, or any other metal, 40f. do.; detached pieces, in cast iron, 15f.; in malleable iron, 20f.; in copper, and other materials, 40f. do.; machinery in wood, at the rate of other wooden works.

CHEMICAL PRODUCTIONS.—Alum, 4f. per 100 kilog.; soda, &c., 6f. do.; sal ammoniac, 20f. do.

TISSUES OF COTTON.—Unbleached or bleached, the present duty; dyed or printed, 325f. per 100 kilog.

TISSUES OF SILK, (excepting ribbons, which continue at the present duty.)—Unbleached or half bleached, the present duty; bleached, dyed, or printed, 10f. per kilog.

TULLES AND LACE.—Cotton tulle, unbleached, as at present; bleached, dressed or colored, 18f. per kilog.; worked, 12f.

SPECIAL DISPOSITIONS.

The metal cases in which tin shall be imported, are subject, according to the meta a different duty from the goods.

Engines and machinery may be imported by sea, by the Maese, and by the custom-house offices attached to the state railroads.

The duties on machines, or part machines, are computed on the nett weight.

The declaration must establish, independently of the nature of the machines and the general weight, the pieces of which it consists.

There shall be produced, in support of that declaration—1. An inventory explanatory of the objects to which it relates, and indicating the number, the object, the weight, and metal of each piece imported. 2. A plan on a scale distinctly setting forth the metals of which the machine is formed.

During a year, from the present time, the augmentation of entry duties shall not be applicable to French cotton cloths, the origin of which shall be fully justified, in conformity to regulations to be laid down by the Minister of Finance. Neither shall they be applicable to the productions of the Zoll-verein, during the existence of the treaty of the 1st of September, 1844, between Belgium and the Zoll-verein, and from the present time, pending the exchange of the ratifications of the said treaty.

The present duty of 4f. is continued—1. On silk tissues, of French origin, during the remainder of the convention of 1842. 2. On those of Zoll-verein origin, during the existence of the treaty of the 1st of September, 1844, &c.

The importation of unbleached and half bleached tissues, for the purpose of being dyed and printed, and then re-exported, will be allowed free of duty.

DIFFERENTIAL DUTIES ON IMPORTS—EXTRACT REDUCED INTO BRITISH WEIGHT AND MONEY,

From Countries out of Europe, other than the places of production.

Articles.	By Belg. vessels.	Vess. of country whence imported.	Other foreign vessels.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Pernambuco wood.....per ton	18 6	37 0	46 6
Cocoa.....per cwt.	3 4	4 4	5 6
Coffee.....	5 0	5 10	6 8
Hemp.....	0 2½	0 11	1 6
Cotton, East India.....	0 8	0 9	....
" other sorts.....	0 10	1 0	1 0
Spices, pepper and pimento.....	6 7	7 6	8 4
" all sorts.....	7 2	8 0	8 0
Tallow.....	0 3	1 2	1 7
Oil, whale, seal, and spermaceti.....per ton	132 0	154 0	176 0
Indigo.....per cwt.	4 2	4 7	4 7
Honey.....	5 4	6 4	7 3
Lead.....	0 2½	0 8½	0 8½
Quercitron.....	0 10½	1 0	1 0
Rice, East India.....	3 9	4 2	4 2
" other sorts.....	4 7	5 1	5 1
Rosin.....	0 4	0 6	0 6
Sugar.....	0 9½	1 2	1 11
Tobacco, American.....	5 4	5 10	5 10
Tea.....	46 5	48 0	46 0
Pot ashes.....	1 3	1 5	1 5

N. B.—1. The duties on these articles will be levied in full from the 21st July, 1845. In the interval, only one-half of the increase upon the present duty is applicable.

2. The present duty of 1d. per cwt. on sugar, imported by Belgian vessels from European ports, remains in force until the 1st January next, after which it will be raised every year 3½d. per cwt., until it reaches 1s. 3d. per cwt.

Vessels may call at an intermediate port of orders, and their cargoes be admitted as direct imports, till the first October, 1844, for those arriving from a port within the Straits of Gibraltar; till the 1st January, 1845, for those arriving from ports out of Europe, within the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn; till the 1st July, 1845, for those arriving from beyond the Capes.

After these dates, the faculty of calling for orders, but without privileges of sale, is confined, 1st, to Belgian vessels, and 2d, to foreign vessels, of which the cargo is for account of, or consigned direct to, houses established in Belgium; and when the bills of lading are made out to order, proof must be given by certificate of the Belgian consul, at the port of loading, on the captain's bill of lading, or manifest of such interest

Vessels putting into an intermediate port, from stress of weather, must bring a certifi

cate to that effect from the Belgian consul, to secure the benefit of direct importation. In absence of a Belgian consul, certificates may be taken from the consul of any friendly power.

The government are authorized to place foreign ships on the same footing as the Belgian, for import of the produce or manufactures of their respective countries. Under this power, ships of the United States have been assimilated to Belgian, for import of American produce from the United States.

RIO DE JANEIRO DUTIES ON U. S. IMPORTS.

DUTIES ON PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF IMPORT FROM THE UNITED STATES INTO RIO DE JANEIRO, AS PER NEW TARIFF, WHICH WENT INTO OPERATION NOVEMBER 11, 1844.

Articles.	Duty in currency.	Duty in dolls. and cts. Exchange, 25d.
Beeswax	210 per lb.	10 51 per lb.
Beef	4‖500 per bbl.	2 25 per bbl.
Bran	250 per ar.*	05 per bush.
Butter	120 per lb.	06 per lb.
Candles, sperm	180 "	09 "
" composition	200 "	10 "
" tallow	075 "	3 75 "
Cheese	120 "	06 "
Cigars	15‖000 per M.	7 50 per M.
Cordage, Russia	6‖000 per qtl.	2 24 per lb.
" Manilla	7‖500 "	2 81 "
" Coiar	4‖500 "	1 71 "
Domestics	.....	....
Drills, brown	058 per yard.	2 91 per yard.
" bleached	068 "	3 41 "
" blue	078 "	3 91 "
Denims	078 "	3 91 "
Osnaburgs	058 "	2 91 "
Shirtings	040 "	02 "
" stripes	078 "	3 91 "
Flour	3‖000 per bbl.	1 50 per bbl.
Fire-crackers	4‖800 per 100 bun.	2 40 per 100 bun.
Gunpowder	180 per lb.	09 per lb.
Hams	060 "	03 "
Hay	180 arrobe.	28 per arrobe.
Ice	1‖800 per ton.	90 per ton.
Lead, pig	3‖000 per qtl.	1 14 per lb.
Lard	047 per lb.	1 35 "
Lumber	9‖500 per 1,000 ft.	4 75 per M.
Oars	033 per foot.	1 65 per foot.
Pork	6‖000 per bbl.	3 00 per bbl.
Pepper	050 per lb.	2 51 per lb.
Oil, sperm	425 per gall.	21 25 per gall.
" whale	256 "	12 81 "
" linseed	054 per lb.	20 "
Rosin	1‖680 per bbl.	84 per bbl.
Salt	160 per alq.	07 per bush.
Saltpetre	1‖500 per arrobe.	2 34 per lb.
Soap	040 per lb.	2 "
Spirits of turpentine	085 "	80 per gall.
Tea, of all kinds	600 "	30 per lb.
Tobacco, of all kinds	6‖000 per arrobe.	9 38 "
Wheat	400 per alq.	17 per bush.
Water-crackers	1‖000 per arrobe.	1 56 per lb.

* Means 1 arrobe, containing 32 lbs.

TREATY OF BELGIUM AND THE ZOLL-VEREIN.

The Paris papers announce the ratification of the treaty between Belgium and the Zoll-verein, and publish the document at length. At the end of article 5, a separate clause has been inserted, and the 19th article has been modified. The separate article is to the following effect:—

"SEPARATE ARTICLE.—The cargoes of ships belonging to the Zoll-verein, imported into Belgium indirectly, and which are subject to the differential duties, and the Belgian ships importing into the ports belonging to the Zoll-verein cargoes shipped in a port not belonging to Belgium or the Zoll-verein, shall pay an extraordinary duty *de pavillon*, which shall not exceed half the actual amount of that duty. This stipulation shall remain in force till the 1st of January, 1848, and beyond that time during the existence of the treaty, if at that term one or other of the high contracting parties make no general change in his system of legislation in respect to navigation. In that case, the high contracting parties will arrange the stipulations of the first paragraph of the first article, with such modifications as may be introduced."

With regard to the last paragraph of article 19, it provides that in case the custom-house tariff of the Zoll-verein should be reduced, or if the duties on cast or wrought iron should be abolished altogether, the contracting parties shall arrange, at the time of making these reductions, the compensation to be given to Belginm. Nothing further is said in the French papers on the subject of the new duties laid on English goods introduced into Belgium. They are apparently satisfied with what they have got, and with the assurance that, although the exemption in favor of France is nominally only one year, the Belgian government is determined that it shall be continued.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

MONONGAHELA RIVER IMPROVEMENT.

We find, in the Pittsburgh Gazette and Advertiser, a highly interesting statement from a committee of the citizens of Pittsburgh, Brownsville, and the intermediate country, on the occasion of the opening of the Monongahela Navigation Company's lately completed work. This new improvement has opened a steamboat navigation, which will continue throughout the year, except when interrupted by ice, from Brownsville to Pittsburgh. The railway extending from Baltimore to Cumberland, brings travellers by that very speedy and pleasant mode of locomotion within seventy miles of Brownsville, from which place they are taken to Pittsburgh, in fine steamboats. At Pittsburgh, of course, they have choice of other boats to any portion of the far west. and indeed the citizens generally of Pittsburgh, have a right to congratulate themselves upon the successful completion of this noble enterprise; giving them, as it does, a means of powerful competition in the freighting business from Baltimore, with their neighbors of Wheeling. The receipt time, at present, for goods from Baltimore to Wheeling, is nine days; to Brownsville, five days. Add one day to Pittsburgh, and leaves three days less to Pittsburg than to Wheeling; so that goods can be taken from Baltimore, by the Monongahela improvement, to Louisville, sooner than they now go by wagon from Baltimore to Wheeling. The ordinary rates of carriage are—

Merchandise from Cumberland to Wheeling	per ton	$15 00
" " " to Brownsville		9 00
Produce from Wheeling to Cumberland		12 00
" Brownsville to Cumberland		7 00

Western produce is receipted for from Pittsburg, via Brownsville, to Baltimore, at 80 cents per hundred, or $16 per ton. The rates from Baltimore to Philadelphia are now 25 cents per one hundred lbs.

SOUTH CAROLINA RAILROAD.

The following statement, originally prepared for the Charleston Courier, was taken from the books of the company. The prosperous condition of this great and important enterprise must be gratifying, indeed, not only to the stockholders, but to every citizen interested in the welfare of Charleston. There is every reason to believe that its income will go on increasing; and, from the fact that there can be no competition with them, of such a magnitude as to affect their business, and the disposition shown to keep the charge for freight at a reasonable rate, it is believed that the stock is destined to become as productive as any in the country.

1843.	Receipts.	1844.	Receipts.
July	$14,726 26	July	$19,488 80
August	13,585 02	August	21,447 07
September	30,765 22	September	41,103 13
October	55,390 54	October	70,451 05
November	47,231 84		
December	42,349 32		

1843—from July to October, inclusive	$114,467 04
1844— " " "	152,339 00
	114,467 04
Gain in four months, on road	$37,871 96
Income of the road, from July to October, 1844	152,329 00
Allow that November and December, 1844, only equal the same months of 1843, and there is no doubt of their exceeding that amount in the same ratio as the four preceding months	89,580 00
Add for the bank dividend	17,500 00
Contract for mail and other sources, $4,000 per month	24,000 00
	$283,409 00
Six months' expenses, at $30,000 per month	180,000 00
	$103,409 00
Thirty-four thousand shares, six months' dividend, at three	102,000 00
Surplus	$1,409 00

As far as November had been brought up, the past week, this year, has produced $14,157 39; the week corresponding, last year, was $11,353 12.

WEST INDIA STEAMERS.

The financial affairs of the West India Steam Company appear in a prosperous state Agreeable to a recent statement of the directors, exhibiting the receipts and disbursements for the half year ending June 30, the receipts exceed those of a similar period in last year, by £16,879 02.

Receipts from January 1 to June 30, 1844	£174,927 16 8
" " " " 1843	158,048 14 7

The above includes the government contract for mail service, of £120,000.

The disbursements during the same period were, in 1844	$108,770 1 11
And in 6 months of 1843	123,706 19 0
Excess of receipts over disbursements, 1844	66,157 14 9
" " " 1843	34,341 15 7

It is contemplated to build another steamer for the conveyance of the mail between Jamaica, Carthagena, &c., heretofore carried by a sailing vessel. The directors announce that they have paid, since their last meeting, £20,000 of their debt, and intend paying off their loan of $50,000, borrowed in 1842.

RAILWAYS IN ENGLAND, ON THE CONTINENT, &c.

In Germany, at the present time, (1844,) there are 1,339 miles of railroad completed, 589 in the course of construction, and 3,096 projected. Germany has 152 miles of railway completed for every million of inhabitants; France, 16; Belgium, 50; England, 86; the United States, 222. Great Britain has 1,800 miles of railroad completed, that have cost $300,000,000; the United States, 4,000 miles—$125,000,000. France has only 560 miles completed. Several years have been lost to devise a plan for the government to afford aid to private corporations to construct and manage railways, they giving to the government the privilege to transport the mails, troops, and munitions of war, at fixed rates. On this plain, France will soon be covered with railways.

Russia, after her first success in a short road of 16 miles, is now constructing a road from St. Petersburg to Moscow, 400 miles long, superintended by American engineers, with Americans in her work-shops to learn her to make locomotives, cars, &c. Russia has also a work projected of 1,000 miles in length, to connect her capital with the Caspian and Black seas. The following is a view of the railways about to be constructed in the several states of Germany:—

	Miles.	To cost		Miles.	To cost
Austria.....	770	£5,440,000	Brunswick.....	81	£475,000
Bavaria.....	228	1,656,000	Dramstadt.....	70	730,000
Wurtemburg	174	3,024,000			
Baden.....	217	2,016,000	Total.....	1,872	£14,995,000
Hanover	272	1,650,000			

In enumerating these extended lines of railways on the continent, and in Great Britain, we do not read of a single new canal projected, or in the course of construction. Railways judiciously located, and constructed between desirable points, are sure to be safe investments.

In England, the late official returns show a falling off in the receipts of canals, side by side with railways, of from 33 to 66 per cent; while about this ratio of increase in freight has been added to railways. The canal property was worth £200, £300, and even as high, in one instance, as £1,200 per every £100 paid. Since the complete success of railways, to carry all classes of freight, this class of stocks have fallen, since then, 50 per cent on their former value; while the railways have steadily advanced in prices, and 2,000 miles of new railways are projected, at an estimated cost of £70,000,000. In England, the long lines pay 6 to 10 per cent dividends, as a whole—near 5 per cent per annum, on $300,000,000. New England has $26,000,000 invested in railways, that now netts 6 per cent. The whole line from Buffalo to Albany, 320 miles, costing about $7,000,000, netts 7 per cent. Yet, under this view, we have individuals in this state who would expend $25,000,000 more to enlarge the Erie canal, while less than half this sum would give us a complete double track, from Buffalo to New York, open all the year, and at rates of transportation as low as by the canal, if not lower, J. E. B.

PARIS AND LONDON RAILWAYS.

The establishment of the railroads from London to Portsmouth, from London to Dover, and from Paris to Rouen, have facilitated the communication between the two greatest capitals of Europe. But the journey has not yet been rendered so short, and so easy of accomplishment, as might have been anticipated. At length, however, a grant has been made by the French government, to a private company, of the privilege of establishing a railroad from Amiens to Boulogne, which will, when completed, probably constitute the shortest and most frequented route of communication between these two capitals. On the 16th of October, the privilege of constructing a railroad on this route was adjudged to Messrs. Charles Lafitte, Blount & Co., for a term of 98 years and 11 months.

This company is not to enjoy the benefit of having the cost of grading, and of the works of art, defrayed by the government. The whole work is to be done at the expense of the company. It is thought, nevertheless, that the amount of travelling between these two great cities will be such as to insure a liberal profit to the company. The Paris Journal des Debats, in speaking of this enterprise, remarks that "it is no exaggeration to say that the cause of civilization in general will derive a great benefit from it. By means of this railroad, the two great centers of knowledge, of the arts, and of liberty, will be brought within twelve hours' travel of one another. Within the space of three years, in all probability, it will be made easy, by means of this railroad, to make the journey from Paris to London between the rising and setting of the sun, during a great part of the year."

RAILROAD TAXATION IN ENGLAND.

It is stated, in the London Railway Times, that the gross receipts on 2,000 miles of English railway, for 1843, were £7,002,004; the working expenses, £2,222,924; the government duty paid, £191,081; interest on loans, &c., £1,070,000; local rates and taxes, £156,000; forming a total expenditure (estimated) of £3,023,824; leaving only £3,111,000, (upon an invested capital of 80 to 100 millions,) for "dividend," and subject to income-tax, &c. Taking ten acres to a mile of railway, those 2,000 miles would give 20,000 acres of land; which, as land, would be assessed at £14,000, paying a rate of £4,000; but which, as railway, is assessed at £780,000, at least, paying £156,000 a year rates; and that amount is fast increasing. Irish, Scotch, Welsh, and continental railways, and English canals, &c., are exempt from this principle and burden of taxation. Besides these contributions, those 2,000 miles of railway pay income tax £90,000, besides land-tax, tithe-assessed taxes, &c.; and their property is assessed, for the purposes of taxation, at 48 times its legitimate amount, which is gradually increasing; and that assessment forms the guide for railway contribution to the 12 millions of yearly local taxation, the 5 millions of tithe, the 1¼ million of land-tax, besides the assessed taxes, sewers, and state taxes.

INCOME OF THE MOHAWK AND HUDSON RAILROAD.

The following is a comparative table of the earnings of the Mohawk and Hudson railroad, for the years ending October 31, 1843 and 1844:—

1842—November	$5,039 25	1843—November	$6,047 42
December	2,350 74	December	8,918 03
1844—January	1,905 51	1844—January	2,029 80
February	1,469 49	February	2,552 31
March	1,609 62	March	3,300 93
April	4,677 43	April	7,665 12
May	6,447 06	May	6,583 27
June	5,050 87	June	6,432 05
July	6,568 97	July	7,915 39
August	7,565 90	August	9,609 58
September	5,233 52	September	8,888 31
October	6,791 31	October	9,075 39
Total	$54,700 67	Total	$74,018 08
			54,700 67
Excess in favor of 1844			$19,317 41
The receipts for the two weeks ending Nov. 14, were			$2,943 61
Same time last year			2,802 00
Excess in favor of 1844			$141 61

OPENING AND CLOSING OF THE NEW YORK CANALS,

IN EACH YEAR, FROM 1824 TO 1844.

The business of the canals of New York closed about the 28th of November. By the use of ice-breakers, portions of the canal were kept open, however, a few days longer, to enable boats in the vicinity to reach their winter-quarters. The following table will show the commencement and close of navigation for each year, since 1824:—

Year.	Commencement.	Close.	No. of days.	Year.	Commencement.	Close.	No. of days.
1824.....	April 30	Dec. 4	219	1835.....	April 17	Nov. 30	230
1825.....	" 12	" 5	238	1836.....	" 25	" 26	216
1826.....	" 20	" 18	243	1837.....	" 20	Dec. 9	234
1827.....	" 22	" 18	241	1838.....	" 12	Nov. 25	228
1828	Mar. 27	" 20	269	1839.....	" 20	Dec. 16	228
1829.....	May 2	" 17	230	1840.....	" 20	" 3	215
1830.....	April 20	" 17	242	1841.....	" 26	Nov. 24	218
1831.....	" 16	" 1	230	1842.....	" 20	" 23	215
1832.....	" 25	" 21	241	1843.....	May 1	Dec. 1	214
1833.....	" 19	" 12	238	1844.....	April 18	Nov. 28 pro.	224
1834.....	" 17	" 12	240				

INCREASE OF RAILROAD TRAVEL.

The receipts on ten of the following works, to the 1st September, shows an increase of $800,357. The receipts on all the public and private works—railways, canals, and turnpikes—in the different states, in 1844, compared with 1843, will present an increase of four millions of dollars, or an enhanced value of eighty millions of dollars, calculated on an interest of 5 per cent.

	1843.	1844.	Increase.
Utica and Schenectady.....	$155,044	$179,078	$24,034
Tonawanda, to August.....	27,033	52,022	24,988
Buffalo and Attica, August.....	20,929	34,179	13,250
Norwich and Worcester.....	91,911	140,060	58,149
Western Railroad.....	346,556	460,677	114,121
New York Canals.....	858,445	1,137,717	279,272
Pennsylvania.....	578,879	714,801	140,922
Reading Railroad.....	232,637	365,004	132,367
Southern Railroad	1,452	4,364	2,911
Hartford and New Haven Railroad.	89,288	99,632	10,343

These various lines all show a very favorable state of things, and clearly demonstrate that, for investment, railroad shares are as profitable as bank shares, and but little short of manufacturing stocks.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT OF OHIO.

Ohio seems to be participating most abundantly in the prosperity of public works. The following is a statement of income for two years, ending the middle of May:—

	1842–43.	1843–44.
Ohio Canal.....	$47,480 76	$94,530 04
Medina	28,973 15	43,446 82
Medina Ext'n (unfin., will be compl. this year).	2,754 61	5,253 27
Wabash and Erie	948 39	12,812 23
Hocking.....	660 16	1,692 12
Walhonding.....	105 63	584 23
Muskingum Improvement	7,904 78	14,340 70
	$88,729 48	$172,659 41
		88,729 48
Increase in 1844.....		$83,929 93

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

BALANCE OF UNITED STATES COMMERCE.

BALANCE OF TRADE FOR AND AGAINST THE U. S., WITH EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, IN 1843.

Statistical View of the Commerce of the United States, for the nine months commencing 1st October, 1842, and terminating 30th June, 1843; showing the amount of exports and imports to and from each foreign country, and the balance of trade, for and against the United States, with each of those countries.

Countries.	VALUE OF EXPORTS. Domestic produce, dollars.	Foreign produce, dollars.	Total, dollars.	Val. of imports, dollars.	Balance in favor of U. S., dollars.	Balance against U. S., dollars.
Russia	309,867	76,926	386,793	742,803	.....	356,010
Prussia	222,039	18,330	240,369	.....	240,369	.....
Sweden and depen.	49,609	18,153	67,782	278,674	.....	210,912
Denmark and dep.	746,815	81,050	827,865	485,285	342,580	.....
Holland and depen.	2,018,183	352,701	2,370,884	815,451	1,555,433	.....
Belgium	1,674,224	296,485	1,970,709	171,695	1,799,014	.....
Hanse Towns	2,898,948	392,984	3,291,932	920,865	2,371,067	.....
England and dep.	45,428,811	1,473,024	46,901,833	28,978,582	17,923,253	.....
France and dep.	11,934,066	538,387	12,472,453	7,836,137	4,636,316	.....
Hayti	610,796	42,574	653,370	898,447	.....	245,077
Spain and dep.	3,483,898	469,796	3,953,694	6,980,504	.....	3,026,810
Portugal and dep.	157,541	10,993	168,534	71,369	97,165	.....
Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia	682,149	238,592	920,741	564,228	356,513	.....
Trieste	460,240	118,938	579,178	72,957	506,221	.....
Turkey	108,465	68,014	176,479	182,854	.....	6,375
Texas	105,240	37,713	142,953	445,399	.....	302,446
Mexico	907,745	564,192	1,471,937	2,782,406	.....	1,310,469
Central America	34,469	18,497	52,966	132,167	.....	79,201
Venezuela	483,077	100,425	583,502	1,191,280	.....	607,778
New Granada	72,008	84,944	161,953	115,733	46,220	.....
Brazil	1,568,584	223,704	1,792,288	3,947,658	.....	2,155,370
Argentine Republic	168,083	94,026	262,109	793,488	.....	531,379
Cisplatine Republic	219,576	75,549	295,125	131,753	173,372	.....
Chili	869,883	179,580	1,049,463	857,556	191,907	.....
Peru	.....	.....	.....	135,563	.....	135,563
S. America, gen'lly.	98,713	.....	98,713	.....	98,713	.....
China	1,755,393	663,565	2,418,958	4,385,556	.....	1,966,608
Europe, generally.	36,066	140	36,206	.....	36,206	.....
Asia, generally	253,861	267,296	521,157	445,837	75,520	.....
Africa, generally	281,060	22,180	303,249	353,274	.....	50,025
W. Indies, gen'rally	95,412	125	95,537	.....	95,537	.....
South Seas	58,961	18,805	77,766	45,485	31,921	.....
Uncertain places	.....	.....	.....	623	.....	623
Total	77,793,783	6,552,697	84,346,480	64,753,799	30,577,327	10,984,646

Total exports	$84,346,480	Balance in favor of U. S.	$30,577,327
" imports	64,753,799	" against U. S.	10,984,646
Total	$19,592,681	Total	$19,592,681

STATISTICS OF THE AMERICAN FISHERIES.

The following statistics of this important branch of American commerce, says the National Intelligencer, will be acceptable to all readers who take an interest in the rise and progress of the great sources of national wealth and greatness. And first, as to the mackerel fishery in Massachusetts. The quantity inspected was—

In 1804..... bbls.	8,079½	In 1819.....bbls.	105,433
1807.....	10,904½	1830.....	308,642
1813.....	3,822½	1832.....	382,000
1814.....	1,349	1841.....	56,000
1816.....	30,021	1842.....	76,000
1818.....	47,210		

The quantity of fish caught, and smoked and dried in the United States, in 1840, was 773,947 quintals, of 112 pounds weight each, and of pickled fish 472,359½ barrels.

The quantity of fish caught, and smoked and dried in Massachusetts, in 1840, was 389,715 quintals, and of pickled fish 124,755 barrels.

The fish caught, and smoked and dried in Maine, in 1840, was 279,156 quintals, and of pickled fish 24,071 barrels.

The fish caught, and smoked and dried in New Hampshire, in 1840, was 28,257 quintals, and of pickled fish, 1,714½ barrels.

Mackerel are caught with a line and hook. A writer in the North American Review, in No. 120, page 75, says—

"We have heard more than one fisherman say that he had caught sixty mackerel in a minute! Certain it is, that some active young men will haul in and jerk off a fish, and throw out the line for another, with a single motion, and repeat the act in so rapid succession, that their arms seem to be continually on the swing."

Mackerel are caught off the coast of Nova Scotia with seine nets, and eight hundred barrels have been caught by one seine, at a single haul.

The Newfoundland fishery was commenced in 1504, by vessels from Biscay, Bretagne, and Normandy, in France. It increase was rapid. In 1517, it employed 50 vessels, of different European nations—in 1577, the number was 350. Bancroft says that, in 1578, "400 vessels came annually from Portugal, Spain, France, and England." In 1608, there were 200 vessels engaged in it; and, including the shoremen, or curers, 10,000 men. The value of dried codfish, and of pickled herring, shad, salmon, and mackerel, exported during the nine months ending with the 30th of September last, was $491,217. Cuba, Hayti, and the other islands of the West Indies, are our principal customers for these articles.

In connection with this subject, the herring fishery, though not exclusively an American fishery, furnishes the following statements:—

"It is said, by writers of authority, that, in 1560, the Dutch employed 1,000 vessels in the herring fishery; that the number in 1610 was 1,500, and that in 1620 it was 2,000. These estimates are regarded, however, as extravagant. But what shall be said of Sir Walter Raleigh, who fixed the annual value of the fishery at ten millions sterling; or De Witt, who said that every fiftieth person earned his subsistance by it? Yet such statements were believed at the time they were made, and their correctness is contended for now."—(North American Review, p. 82.)

Whale Fisheries of the United States.

The imports of the fisheries into the United States, for the year 1843, are thus stated in the Boston Daily Advertiser:—

"Ships and barques, 193; brigs, 23; schooners, 13; making a total tonnage of 67,893 tons. These vessels brought in 165,744 barrels of sperm oil, 205,581 barrels of whale oil, and 1,968,047 pounds of bone."

The exports of spermaceti and whale oil, and whalebone, for the nine months ending on the 30th day of June, 1843, was in value $1,372,022, and $243,308 in spermaceti candles. The Hanse Towns and Holland are our best customers for whale oil, but England takes nearly all our sperm exported.

The first regular attempt to engage in the whaling business, in this country, was about the year 1672. The English, French, and Dutch, were before that time largely engaged in it. In 1672, the town of Nantucket formed a co-partnership with James Lasser, for

carrying on the traffic, which was done by means of boats from the shore, the whales then being numerous in the neighborhood of the island. The first sperm whale was taken in 1712, by Christopher Hussey, a Nantucket whaleman, who was blown off shore while cruising for "right wales." From this commencement, the business increased; and in 1715, Nantucket had six vessels of thirty to forty tons burden, engaged in this business, yielding about $5,000 per annum. From this small beginning, the traffic has grown to its present paramount importance among the various branches of American industry.

Mr. Grinnell, a member of Congress from New Bedford, stated, during the last session, that our whaling fleet now consists of 650 ships, &c., tonnaging 200,000 tons; which costs, at the time of sailing, $20,000,000, and are manned by 17,000 officers and seaman, one-half of which are green hands when the vessels sail. The value of the annual import of oil and whalebone, in a crude state, is $7,000,000; when manufactured, it is increased in value to $8,000,000, or $9,000,000. Taking the entire amount of exports at $2,000,000, there will be from six to seven millions to be consumed at home. Mr. Grinnell adds:—

"Although this interest is not directly protected by the tariff of 1842, as its products are cheaper in this country than in any other, yet those concerned in it are decidedly in favor of the protective policy. They have found, by experience, that when the manufacturers and mechanics of the country are actively employed, they can sell their products at fair prices; and that when duties have been low, and almost without discrimination in favor of such articles as are made in this country, it has been difficult to make sales even at low prices. They are in favor of the protective policy, notwithstanding that the duties on each whale ship and outfits, of 350 tons, amount to $1,700. They find themselves fully compensated by the home market.

"This fleet of whaling ships," says M. G., "is larger than ever pursued the business before. Commercial history furnishes no account of any parallel. Our ships now outnumber those of all other nations combined, and the proceeds of its enterprise are in proportion, and diffused to every part of our country. The voyages of those engaged in the sperm fishery average three and a half years; they search every sea, and often cruise three or four months, with a man at each mast-head on the look-out, without the cheering sight of a whale."

Governor Briggs, in his inaugural speech, on the 10th January, 1844, says that Massachusetts has $12,000,000, and 16,000 men, engaged in the fisheries; (we presume he means home fisheries and the whale fisheries together,) and that her share therein is twice as great as that of all the other states of the Union.

BRITISH COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION.

From an official statement, recently made, of the exports and imports of Great Britain to the different parts of the world, for the year 1843, some important facts may be gathered, to which we would direct attention. In the trade between Britain and her colonies in the western world, about 60,000 seamen are yearly employed. The amount of wages, and cost of provisions for these, cannot be less than 3,600,000*l.* per annum; and the repairs, insurance, and replacing of capital in the ships, 4,500,000*l.* more. In the trade between Britain and India, and China, 10,000 seamen are employed at a similar rate. Their wages, provisions, &c., will amount to 500,000*l.*; and the replacement of capital, and insurance, to 840,000*l.*; in all 1,340,000*l.* The whole, or very nearly the whole, of the supplies necessary to maintain these seamen and tonnage, are the productions of British soil and labor; and this, in a national point of view, shows the superiority of such a trade a merely manufacturing commerce. A comparison of the trade of the eastern with that of the western world, taking the value of imports and exports, stands nearly thus:—From and to British North American and the West Indian colonies, 14,000,000*l.*; and from and to China and the East Indies about 16,000,000*l.* It thus appears that the former commerce requires nearly five times more ships, tonnage, and seamen, to carry it on, than the

later; thereby affording an incalculable advantage to a naval power, and the support of a naval force, and also to the employment of British agricultural labor and capital. It appears that the weight of cotton yarn and goods exported from England annually, is 120,000 tons; and the value in round numbers being 23,500,000*l.*, it follows that one-half the tonnage employed in carrying the West India exports, (viz: 2,882,441*l.*,) would be sufficient to carry the whole cotton export trade of the country; and, as regards the North American trade, one-seventh of the tonnage would be sufficient. While the trade with the West Indies and British North America, (in exports and imports about 14,000,000*l.* yearly,) employs 2,900 ships, 970,000 tons, that with the United States, (in exports and imports 22,000,000*l.*,) gives employment to 350 ships, 233,000 tons. The imports from China are valued at about 5,000,000*l.*, brought in 84 ships, about 39,712 tons.

FRENCH IMPORTS OF COTTON, SUGAR, AND COFFEE.

Comparative Imports and Sales of Cotton, Sugar, and Coffee, for the first six months of the last ten years, with the Stocks on 1st of January and 30th of June, each year.

Years.	COTTON. Imports. Bales.	COTTON. Sales. Bales.	SUGAR. Imports. Barriq.	SUGAR. Sales. Barriq.	COFFEE. Imports. d. kil.	COFFEE. Sales. d. kil.
1844....	185,125	145,525	11,700	25,500	4,500,000	3,000,000
1843....	234,357	189,357	16,550	15,550	9,900,000	8,700,000
1842....	262,274	187,874	24,050	19,850	200,000	300,000
1841....	237,052	152,552	21,600	15,600	7,770,000	6,320,000
1840....	266,848	201,848	26,330	24,330	4,150,000	650,000
1839....	182,730	86,530	20,860	20,860	8,600,000	7,000,000
1838....	206,055	162,755	24,033	15,533	830,000	7,984,000
1837....	176,840	138,340	15,628	16,128	2,243,000	276,000
1836....	181,405	146,205	21,936	21,938	336,080	8,536,080
1835....	150,139	115,339	24,380	20,880	9,300,000	8,300,000

CANAL COMMERCE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

ARRIVALS AT, AND EXPORTS FROM, PITTSBURGH.

During the year commencing December 1st, 1843, and ending November 30th, 1844, the exports of the following articles, by canal, into Pittsburgh, were—

Dry-goods.....lbs.	24,133,173	Tobacco.....lbs.	763,465
Muslin.....	5,625,146	Leather.....	415,775
Coffee.....	9,092,807	Hemp.....	388,669
Hardware.....	8,417,359	Furniture.....	1,049,718
Queensware	4,565,005	Gypsum, &c.....	1,562,807
Groceries.....	5,108,266	Copper and tin.....	765,399
Drugs.....	1,721,778	Marble.....	391,419
Iron and nails.....	3,583,232	Glassware.....	57,988
Blooms.....	18,824,166	Salt.....bbls.	41,295
Pig metal.....	5,094,722	Sundries.....lbs.	485,142

The exports eastward, by canal, during the same period, were—

Flour.....bbls.	110,452	Whiskey.....galls.	77,591
Seeds.....lbs.	177,561	Groceries.....lbs.	1,379,780
Bacon.....	19,105,805	Merchandise.....	324,318
Beef.....bbls.	75,099	Drugs.....	80,634
Pork.....	26,531	Furniture.....	250,744
Lard and tallow.....lbs.	2,666,039	Window glass.....boxes	3,099
Cheese and butter.....	1,645,472	Bags.....lbs.	669,742
Wool.....	3,166,969	Iron and nails.....	500,400
Cotton.....	1,125,746	Pigs and casts.....	2,646,167
Hemp.....	881,961	Coffee.....	90,722
Tobacco.....	17,803,415	Agricultural produce.. ...	849,374
Leather.....	69,791	Hardware.....	159,171
Hides	492,684	Sundries.....	597,539
Furs.....	103,007		

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

SAILING DIRECTIONS FOR THE ISLAND OF ICHABOE.

The following directions for vessels approaching the island of Ichaboe, sometimes called "Guano island," situated on the southwest cost of Africa, were transmitted to the Department of State by the United States consul at Rio de Janeiro, and are published officially in the "Madisonian," under date of Washington, November 21st, 1844, for the information of those whom they may concern.

The consul states that the island is situated about three miles from the main land; is difficult of approach; of bold, rocky shore, without any harbor, and exposed to heavy surf and frequent fogs. It is but a little more than a mile in circumference, without soil, or the least sign of vegetation, and covered with guano to the depth of twenty to thirty feet. The birds that inhabit it are a species of penguin, their wings being a kind of fin, which enables them to fly but a short distance. They are said to be so numerous and tame, that it is difficult to walk about the island without treading upon them. That part of the continent near to which the island is situated is also barren, and destitude of fresh water. It seldom rains in that latitude, and vessels approaching the coast, during high winds from off shore, will often be covered with sand, at the distance of fifty or even a hundred miles from the land.

DIRECTIONS FOR APPROACHING THE ISLAND OF ICHABOE, ON THE SOUTHWEST COAST OF AFRICA.

On making the land off Pedestal Point, to the west of Angra Pequena, which lies in lat. 26 deg. 38 min. S., and long. 15 deg. 2 min. 30 sec. E. from Greenwich, sail nine leagues north, quarter west, keeping about three miles from the main land, when the small island of Ichaboe will come in sight, lying in lat. 26 deg. 17 min. S., long. 14 deg. 48 min. E. If possible, the south channel should be taken on going in, as it is the safest and best, there being no danger to be apprehended but which is visible, or laid down in the chart; but, if too far to leeward, the north channel may be entered by working up, care being taken not to approach too near the main land; as, equi-distant from the land and the island, there is a sunken rock, as shown on the chart, having about two and a half feet of water over it at low tide, without any ripple by which it may be discovered. It is important that Angra Pequena be made the first landfull. If too far to leeward of the island, there is much difficulty in getting to windward, as the winds blow mostly from S. S. W., and seldom from any other quarter. If close to the island on the approach of a fog, stand out to sea, as fogs come on suddenly, and generally last about two days, during which time there is no wind to carry a vessel clear of the island. A heavy surf, breaking upon a bold rocky shore, renders the fogs extremely dangerous. Spring tides rise seven feet.

REEFS AND BUOYS OF DENMARK.

The following information has been communicated to the Department of State by the Charge d'Affaires of the United States at Copenhagen, Denmark, and is translated and officially published, under date of Department of State, Washington, Dec. 3d, 1844, for the benefit of mariners:—

"For the purpose of marking the reef projecting from 'the Skaw' point, a beacon-bouy was some time since laid down at its northeastern extremity, in four and a half fathoms water, in direction west by south of the light-house and the old church steeple, both in a line, and furnished with three brooms.

"In addition to the foregoing, another beacon-buoy has now been laid down at the south-eastern extremity of the reef, in four fathoms water, the light-house bearing north-west, and the old Skrager church steeple west. This beacon-buoy is provided with but two brooms, and will, like the former, be out during the winter; and, should the ice carry it away, it will be replaced by another, as early as practicable.

LIGHTS AND LIGHT-HOUSES OF FRANCE.

We are informed by T. Pequent, French consul, *pro tem.*, residing at Philadelphia, that the Administration of the Bridges and Ways in France published annually a table, descriptive of the light-houses and lights on the coasts of that country, in order to keep navigators aquainted with the additions and modifications which the maritime lights are continually receiving. Captains of vessels will be able to obtain the necessary intelligence on this subject from the documents recently distributed among the consuls. These documents communicate the changes and additions which have taken place up the 1st of July, 1844, in the light-houses and lights that are placed on the coasts of France.

WHALERS AND TRADERS TO HONOLULU.

Vessels approaching Honolulu, and desiring a pilot, will set their national ensign and pilot-signal, on which he will go off immediately. Unless this rule is complied with, no attentiton will be paid by the pilot to the signals of vessels. The following are the port and harbor dues at Lahaina, Maui :—

Anchorage and pilotage	$10 00
Lighthouse	1 00
Clearance	1 00
Canal	3 00
Watering ship,* (cash, $2 50, one piece of cloth, $3 50)	6 00
Total	$21 00

REVOLVING LIGHT ON THE ROCK OF LISBON.

The following notice to navigators has been received at Lloyd's, (London, Eng.) from the Hydrographic Office, Admiralty, dated Oct. 25th, 1844 :—

"The Portuguese government has given notice that the light on Capa de Roca, on the rock of Lisbon, has been altered from a fixed to a revolving light, each revolution being completed in two minutes. During the first minute, it will present a red light, the greatest intensity of which will continue thirty seconds; and during the second minute it will present a bright light of the greatest brilliancy, and which will also continue thirty seconds. The light is in lat. 38. 46. 5. N., and long. 9. 29. 0. W., and being 495 feet above the level of the sea, may be seen, in very clear weather, at the distance of eight or nine leagues.

BUOY AT THE HARBOR OF ST. AUGUSTINE.

A. W. Walker, collector of the port of St. Augustine, under date of November 20th, gives notice that, through a change in the channel, the outer buoy at the entrance of the harbor of St. Augustine now lies about 125 yards north of said entrance. The two inner buoys remain in the channel.

LIGHT-HOUSE ON MORO CASTLE.

The authorities of Havana have concluded a contract for the construction of a magnificent revolving lantern, for the new light-house building over the Moro castle. It is to be placed on the tower, which is already raised 100 feet above the level of the sea, by the 1st December. The light will be made to revolve every thirty seconds.

*The natives will take the casks on the beach, fill, raft, and return them, for the above sum.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MERCANTILE BENEFICIAL SOCIETY OF PHILADELPHIA.

The appearance of the last annual report of this association, in one of the Philadelphia papers, induced us to address a letter to Mr. A. T. Chur, the secretary, for the purpose of procuring some account of its history and character, in order to lay it before our merchants generally, in the hope that, if calculated to advance the objects which its name would seem to indicate, it would lead to the establishment of similar associations in all our large commercial cities. The information we sought has been politely communicated to us, as will be seen by the following letter of Mr. Chur, in answer to our inquiries:—

Philadelphia, December 17, 1844.

Freeman Hunt, Esq., Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

Dear Sir—Your note of the 4th inst. reached me but yesterday morning, and I hasten to give you the information asked for.

In the spring of 1842, the necessity and feasibility of an association of mercantile men having for its object the rendering of pecuniary aid to such of the profession as might be unfortunate in their business affairs, was suggested to the mind of Mr. Thomas F. Brady, of this city, by the prostration of a friend, then in business, from prosperity to comparative destitution, by a succession of those unfortunate vicissitudes to which the mercantile profession is so often subjected. Feeling deeply interested in the subject, he communicated his views to a few acquaintances, with whose aid the names of upwards of sixty merchants and clerks were procured, as a preliminary start to the project; and, at a preparatory meeting of these gentlemen, held April 29, 1842, a committee was appointed to draft a constitution and by-laws for the effectual organization of the society; and with the adoption of these, on May 6th following, the Mercantile Beneficial Association of Philadelphia made its bow to the public; to the mercantile portion of which it confidently appealed for the aid necessary to place it in a condition honorable to its projectors, worthy of the support of the class to whom it addressed itself, and applicable to the ends for which it was instituted. Its appeal was not in vain. Upwards of four hundred members are enrolled on its list; and the confidence and support of the mercantile community will, it is believed, keep pace with its usefulness.

The objects of the association—as will be seen from the constitution and by-laws, copies of which are herewith submitted—are two-fold. First, to grant pecuniary aid to its suffering members; and second, to render advice and assistance to those seeking employment as clerks, &c. No heavy demand upon the treasury of the society has yet been made; nor, in its state of infancy, could such have been granted—but the cases for proper relief, which have been presented to the committee, have been silently and unostentatiously, but promptly, attended to. The registry of houses wanting clerks, and of clerks in quest of situations, has not yet been carried out to the extent contemplated; but when the society shall have augmented its means, by subscriptions and donations, sufficient to warrant the outlay, it is expected that a permanent and eligible office will be opened, with the necessary books of registry, and an attendant to carry out that part of the society's designs. There the young man, with his credentials, will be met by friendly advisers; and the seeker after useful employment be put in the way most likely to attain his object.

In the election of members and managers, strict regard is had to commercial honor and integrity; and in the distribution of the society's mean—pecuniary and otherwise—care is taken that the apppellant is, in every respect, worthy. The idle and improvident have no claim to its benefits; and the aid extended is not flung as a pittance to a beggar, but is considered as the right of the unfortunate brother who asks it.

In the language of the preamble to our constitution, our association has in view "the promotion of friendship and brotherly affection amongst its members; the distribution, under proper regulations, of pecuniary aid to such of them as may at any time stand in need of it; the pleasant interchange of kind feelings and views between the elder and younger members, whether as merchants or clerks, employers or employed; and the incidental elevation of the mercantile character of our city and state.

You are at liberty to make such use of these remarks as may be most agreeable; and be assured that the establishment of similar societies, in New York and elsewhere, will be hailed with pleasure by the members of the Mercantile Beneficial Association of Philadelphia.

Very truly yours, A. T. CHUR.

"The Mercantile Beneficial Association of Philadelphia," for the better accomplishment of their benevolent objects, have been constituted a body politic and corporate, by the legislature of Pennsylvania; and under that name are "to have perpetual succession, and be forever capable in law to take, hold, and sell real estate, in fee simple or otherwise, and to mortgage and let the same;" including all the usual privileges of such associations. The government of the society embraces a president, treasurer, secretary, three physicians, three counsellors, and a board of managers; which, with the president, treasurer, and secretary, consists of twenty merchants. There is also a standing Committee of Ways and Means, a Registry Committee, and a Relief Committee. One dollar is paid as the initiation fee, and each member is required to pay into the treasury of the society three dollars per annum. A member paying twenty dollars at one time, is considered a member for ten years thereafter, (unless expelled for unworthy conduct,) and is exempted from paying the annual contributions. Life members pay thirty dollars. It requires a vote of two thirds to expel a member, becoming, by bad conduct, unworthy of belonging to the association.

We notice, among the long list of members, the names of many of the leading merchants of Philadelphia. We earnestly hope that the liberal and philanthropic merchants of New York, and indeed of all our principal cities, will take measures for the formation of associations so admirably adapted to promote the spirit of brotherhood in a mercantile community.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF LOUISVILLE.

FOURTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT.

We have received from S. S. Buckler, the President of this excellent, well managed institution, the fourth semi-annual report, made December 2, 1844. It is a comprehensive business-like paper. The Board of Directors refer, with feelings of great satisfaction, to the improved condition of the association, and to the flattering prospects of a more enlarged and acknowledged usefulness; and then proceed to a brief statement of its condition and improvement, as all that the occasion seems to demand, for the practical purpose of suggesting to the mind of every member the duty which he owes to the association and to society, to advance its interests and honor to the best of his ability. It appears, from the report, that at the annual period of the report in

June, the members, life-members, and subscribers, numbered.....	199
Since that time, the record shows an increase of.....	90
Making the present number of members and subscribers.....	289

composed as follows:—Of members, 174; life-members, 28; subscribers, 80; and ladies, 7. The price of subscription, to members and subscribers, has been made uniform; and one dollar quarterly, and one dollar initiation, is now the cost of admission to the privileges of the library and reading-room.

The library is steadily increasing. One hundred and sixty-two volumes of new and valuable works have been added since the last report, and arrangements have been made with a house in New York for the importation of books free of duty, which will insure monthly arrivals of new publications. The library contains 3,400 volumes. The number of volumes recorded as having been in the hands of readers since the 6th of June, is 2,260. The number of volumes now in the hands of readers is 304. Preparations were making for a course of literary and scientific lectures, to commence on the third Monday of December; and the directors have assurances that justify the expectation of a brilliant and popular display of learning and talents.

It only remains to present the condition of the treasury, to show the progress of the association, its present resources, and future prospects:—

The annual report in June exhibited a balance in the treasury, of.....		$382 27
Received since that date from quarterly dues.....		587 01
Making the sum of.....		$969 28
Current expenses for the last six months.....	$232 63	
Expended for books.....	316 00	
		648 63
Leaving a balance of.....		$320 65
Uncollected dues from rent.....	$45 00	
Remitted to New York, for the purchase of books.....	99 46	
		144 46
Making a balance in the treasury of.....		$465 11

ANTHRACITE COAL TRADE, BY RAILWAYS AND CANALS.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

In my remarks on the subject, in your last number, (page 543,) in treating of the capacity of the Schuylkill canal, there is a cypher too much—it should be 700,000 tons, instead of 7,000,000 tons. The word engine *rivers* should be *drivers;* a term now used to distinguish the person formerly called an engineer—the operative, who manages the locomotive engine.

I omitted, in speaking of the Schuylkill Valley as one of the great outlets for hard coal to the Delaware canal and river, and to connect with New York through New Jersey, to state that about one-third of the supply of hard coal came through the Lehigh canal. I should have mentioned, also, the *tide-water canal*, along the Susquehanna, to supply Baltimore and Philadelphia, through the Chesapeake and Delaware canal. About 80,000 tons came through this channel the last year. This will make the total supply of hard coal carried from the mines to tide-water, up to January 1, 1845, equal to 1,525,000. The Pottsville and Reading railroad continues to transport 2,000 tons daily. This quantity will be increased, on procuring a further supply of sheet-iron cars. J. E. B.

GROCERY BUSINESS IN NEW YORK.

The following is an extract from a young English clerk, who emigrated a short time since to this country, to his employers in England. It was published in the London Gazette, of October 29, 1844, and will perhaps be interesting to our readers, as an English account of the grocery business in New York:—

"The grocery trade is among the best in this city; and, with a few hundred pounds, an extensive business can be done. Merchandise, from the small duty imposed on it, is uncommonly cheap. Sugar, such as the fine Jamaica you used to have, sells at 4d.; tea, 2s. to 3s. for young hyson; coffee, from 3½d. to 7d. per lb., and everything else proportionably cheap. A working-man here lives like a gentleman, and every table is loaded with all the delicacies of the season. Fruit is a great article of commerce for a grocer in New York. In the morning, he gets up at five o'clock, and sets off with his wagon to the wharf, where all the steamboats arrive, loaded with fruit of every description. He goes through among the sellers, and makes his bargains; comes home with his wagon load, and is not long in getting it all disposed of, when he sets off for the fruit-market for another load. On Saturdays, Mr.——always goes three times. You may think this a very strange trade for a grocer, but then it is a very lucrative one, and the good folks here care not what they traffic in if they can make a profit by it. Sometimes we sell at three-fourths profit, very often a half, and seldom less than one-third. As regards the retailing of groceries, the customers purchase quite differently from those in Scotland. They buy tea in no less quantities than a quarter, half, or pound parcels; sugar, in one cwt., half cwt., stone, half stone, and quarter stone weight. There is no trifling of time with pennyworths of tea, and pennyworths of sugar, butter, coffee, &c.

THE INFLUENCE OF FREE COMMERCE,

BETWEEN CHINA AND THE REST OF THE CIVILIZED WORLD.

The following, from the Memoirs and Correspondence of Francis Horner, M. P., is at this time both curious and interesting:—

"I went to the Speculative Society this evening, where I heard a very indifferent discussion of one of the most interesting subjects which can engage the attention of a political philosopher—the consequence of a free commerce and intercourse between China and the rest of the civilized world being unfolded to the curiosity and the observation of European science. The discovery which Columbus achieved, hitherto the most magnificent event in the revolutions of the globe, suffers immensely in the comparison. That world which he found at the Western extremity of the Atlantic, was thinly peopled by scattered families of naked barbarians; who except in one or two spots, were in the earliest infancy of the political order. But that the world which is detached from Europe by the wilds of Siberia and Tartary exhibits the sublime spectacle of an incalculable population, which, during a long succession of ages, has been disciplined into all the arrangements of social union, and, by a gradation of which the steps are unknown to the historians and philosophers of Europe, has attained a high pitch of civilization, industry and refinement. What an immense accession to the science of human nature will be furnished by the results of an insultated experiment performed on so large a scale! But it is not upon the gratification of curiosity, to the philosopher either of Europe or China, that our anticipations are most fondly allured to dwell: our fancy is still more powerfully engrossed by the prospect of a change which will be accomplished, soon after a free intercourse, in the moral situation both of China and Europe. The mutual collision of diversified manners, opposing opinions, separate experience, will strike a reciporal stimulous into each; the impulse will pervade the whole system of the earth, accumulating force in the course of its progress; new science will spring up, and new arts; new powers will develope themselves, of which man is yet unconscious; but even then, the career of human kind will still appear infinite and their prospects without a close."

SOLUTION OF THE QUESTION FOR ACCOUNTANTS,

PROPOSED IN THE NOVEMBER NUMBER OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, BY WILLIAM B. HERIOT.

A purchased $\frac{5}{8}$ of the vessel, equal to	15-24ths.
He retained $\frac{1}{3}$, equal to	8-24ths.
Leaving for him to dispose of	7-24ths.
B purchased $\frac{3}{8}$ of the vessel, equal to	9-24ths.
He retained $\frac{1}{3}$	8-24ths
Leaving for him to dispose of	1-24th.
C purchased of A and B $\frac{7}{8}$ or 8-24ths of the vessel, for	$800
Of which A having furnished 7-24ths of the vessel, or $\frac{7}{8}$ of C's $\frac{7}{8}$, is entitled to retain	$700
And B, having furnished 1-24th of the vessel, or $\frac{1}{8}$ of C's $\frac{7}{8}$, A has only to pay B	100
Charleston, (S. C.,) Nov. 18, 1844.	$800

PROPOSED SYSTEM OF CLASSING MERCHANT VESSELS.

We learn, by the last arrival from England, that it is in contemplation by some influential gentlemen, ship-owners, and other connected with maritime affairs, to propose a movement at the various ports, with a view to bring about a more satisfactory system of building and classing merchant vessels. The amendments suggested are, that when the keel of a ship is laid down, the ship-builder shall declare whether he intends to build a ship to class twelve, ten, or eight years, and that the surveyor shall examine and report upon the work as it progresses, stage by stage. The object is to prevent the building of slop ships, and, by substituting a better class, to reduce the rates of premium.

COMPLAINT OF A MERCHANT'S WIFE.

We copy the following communication of a merchant's wife, to the editors of the Evening Mirror, a Journal that should find its way into every merchant's family; as we are quite sure that it would exert a most happy influence in reforming the "crying evil" so justly complained of by "Amanda Smith."

"Messrs. Editors—Allow me, through your agreeable columns, to protest most heartily and fervently against a crying evil in this community, and one which preys upon the spirits, and undermines the happiness of too many of us poor women. I mean that terrible, unnatural, slavish devotion, which our lords and masters pay to their business; thereby, at the same time, destroying their own health and comfort, and poisoning the fountain of all our enjoyments. I hear nothing, from morning to night, but discussions of the tariff, or controversies about stocks, state loans, railroads, steamboats, and such like subjects—all which are well enough at the exchange or the counting-house, but which should never be allowed to profane the sacredness of the fireside. Even young bachelors are often guilty of these enormities. It seems to me, at times, as if there were no more *men* left in the world—they have all become *citizens*. Their humanity seems merged in some presidency or secretaryship. They are good trustees, directors, cashiers, bankers; but they are very indifferent husbands and fathers. They are utterly without social chat—they read no pleasant books—they hate the sound of music—they visit nobody—they scarcely deign to look at the face of Nature; and, as for their unhappy wives, they must put up with cold looks and cold words. This is all wrong, gentlemen. It is a sad perversion of life—it is cruelly unjust to us and our daughters; and it is the too certain source of deep and lasting misery to those who indulge in it. Home is no longer the garden of the heart, watched over by love, its roses kept in perennial bloom—but thorns and briers cumber its beauty. But I feel this matter too deeply to speak in metaphors. My own domestic circle is fast losing its charms, and becoming more dismal and formal than a hotel. I am beginning to lose all pride in my household. I am growing daily more unsociable. My health and temper are both giving way. In a word, I bitterly feel and lament the want of that sympathy and communion of heart, which are so liberally promised us in the marriage-vow. Come, then, gentlemen, like good chevaliers, to our relief. Here is a cause worthy of your active and sprightly pens. Exhort, frighten, ridicule, if you can, our erring husbands into a return to their allegiance, and to a more rational and happy life, and you will ever oblige

Your sincere friend, Amanda Smith.

THE MERCHANT AND THE CHILD.

Richardson, says, in his "Literary Leaves:"—"I remember entering a well-known mercantile house in London, just as some unfavorable intelligence had been received. The head of the firm, with his hard but honest features, looked at once stern and anxious. A small hand twitched his coat behind. He turned slowly round, with a sullen and almost savage brow. His eye fell upon the prettiest little human face that ever gleamed upon the earth. But the child's merry laughter was scarcely more delightful than the bland and beautiful smile that kindled on the merchant's care-worn cheek. His aspect underwent such an instantaneous and entire change, that he looked as if he had changed his nature also. Had a painter stamped his portrait on the canvass, at that happy moment, it would have presented an exquisite illustration of amenity and love. Few, however, of his mercantile friends would have recognized the man of business. He was single and childless; but the fondest parent could not have greeted his own offspring with a sweeter welcome."

LIBERALITY OF AN AMERICAN MERCHANT.

The license for the sale of spirituous liquors at Lahaina, island of Maui, one of the Sandwich islands, was put up at auction, and bid in by the house of Peck & Co., for thirteen hundred dollars. The object was to put an entire stop to the sale of ardent spirits at the island, which was carried on to the great demoralization of the inhabitants, as well as to the crews of vessels which touched there. May American merchants, at home and abroad, be often distinguished by such acts of liberality!

MARYLAND TOBACCO WAREHOUSE.

We notice that the heavy and substantial tobacco warehouse, says the Baltimore Sun, building for the state of Maryland, is rapidly progressing. It will make a decided improvement in the appearance of the wharf upon which it is being erected. It is an immense structure; and, together with the others, will afford ample accommodation to the tobacco trade of the city, which has suffered for lack of warehousing. At times, the other warehouses have been so crowded, as to render a resort to private warehouses necessary—and even then, numbers of hogsheads have remained unhoused, and suffered damage from exposure. Producers from other states have thereby been deterred from sending to this market. Our own producers are obliged to send here for inspection, and the damages they have sustained being reimbursed by the state, have operated as a severe drawback upon the inspection revenue. In 1834, the charge to this account amounted to $4,134 50; and during the last session of the legislature many applications were made for similar reimbursements, and we believe in no instance denied, when the loss was well established. The revenue from inspection of tobacco, in Baltimore, amounted, at the end of the last fiscal year, to $65,045 53, and the disbursements for wages, laborers, and incidental expenses, to $34,267 48; leaving a nett revenue to the state of $20,781 05.

MERCANTILE AND DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

M. Say, the celebrated French writer on political economy, has the following anecdote, which inculcates a lesson of economy well worth heeding, in mercantile as well as domestic life:—

"Being in the country, I had an example of one of those small losses which a family is exposed to through negilence. From the want of a latch of small value, the wicket of a barn-yard, looking to the fields, was left open. Every one who went through, drew the door to; but, having no means to fasten it, it re-opened. One day, a fine pig got out, and ran into the wood, and all the world was after it—the gardener, the cook, dairy-maid, all ran to recover the swine. The gardener got sight of him first, and jumping over a ditch to stop him, he sprained his ancle, and was confined a fortnight to the house. The cook, on her return, found all the linen she had left to dry by the fire burned; and the diary-maid having ran off before she tied the cows, one of them broke the leg of a colt in the stable. The gardener's lost time was worth twenty crowns, valuing his pain at nothing; the linen burned, and the colt spoiled, were worth as much more. Here is a lost of forty crowns, and much pain and trouble, vexation and inconvenience, for the want of a latch which would have cost three pence; and this loss, through careless neglect, falls on a family little able to support it."

NEW VARIETY OF WHEAT.

Several farmers in this quarter, says the Cincinnati Atlas, have cultivated a new variety of wheat, for a year or two past, with great satisfaction. It is called Alabama wheat, from the fact that about half a pint was brought here from that state in 1839, by an observing farmer. After finding that it succeeded well in this climate, he disseminated it for seed, and it is computed that this year 2,000 bushels have been raised, chiefly in the Whitewater valley. It takes the preference, by far, over all other kinds of wheat brought to this market, weighing from 64 to 68 pounds to the bushel. Its yield has averaged about 30 bushels to the acre this season, and the crop was so forward that at Harrison, in this county, it was all harvested by the 6th of June. One man at that place has raised this season 800 bushels, that sells quick at $1 per bushel, for seed. Its culture in this quarter, and in the neighboring parts of Indiana and Kentucky, will be largely extended this fall. The Clermont Fourier Association will alone sow 100 acres with it. Mr. Bradbury, Mr. Fagan, and probably other millers here, are selling it to the farmers for seed, at $1 per bushel. The supply, however, is far short of the demand.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Poets and Poetry of England, in the Nineteenth Century.* By Rufus W. Griswold. 1 volume, 8vo., pp. 504. Illustrated with engravings on steel. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

A knowledge of the chief literary productions of the period in which we live, is an essential part of a man's education. When the counting-house is quitted for the parlor, subjects of commerce should be forgotten for those of social life, of fancy, and affection. Few have the means, and fewer still the leisure, necessary for an examination of the entire productions of the really great authors of the present day. Such works as the one before us, therefore, should find a place in every man's collection of indispensable books. It is published in the elegant style of the annuals, and the public are too familiar with the scholarly taste and habits of careful research which distinguish Mr. Griswold, to doubt that, in the literary execution, it is all that could be desired. Mr. Griswold will receive the thanks of the lovers of poetry for this valuable addition to their libraries; but, in parting with him, we may express a hope that he will return to the fields more exclusively his own—American history and letters. He has unquestionably done far more than any other man to diffuse a knowledge and taste for our own literature and art, and thus most for the æsthetical interests of the country. Let him give us his long-ago announced Biographia Americana. Let him devo e more time to the illustration of what pertains to our own advancement. We say this with a proper sense of his deservings as a general critic and essayist, but with the conviction that he can in no other way do so important services to his country, or so increase his own high reputation, as by applying himself to those labors, for which his comprehensive and profound acquaintance with American literature, art, and history, so eminently qualify him.

2.—*The Public Life of Lord Chancellor Eldon, with Selections from his Correspondence.* By Horace Twiss, Esq., one of Her Majesty's Council. In 2 vols., 8vo Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The public are indebted to the American publishers of the present work for reproducing, from time to time, in this country, many of the most valuable specimens of the modern standard literature of England. The numerous extracts, embracing a fund of interesting anecdotes of the life and times of Lord Eldon, that for the last six months circulated freely in the Journals of the day, sharpened our appetite for more, while it convinced us that a reprint of the work would find a ready market. It seems we have not been mistaken or disappointed; and indeed we could scarcely expect to be, while relying on the intelligence of a Philadelphia publishing house, of acknowledged taste and sagacity. The public and private memoir of Lord Eldon is replete with circumstances and events of interest; and his biographer, in possession of every possible source of information, has succeeded in selecting and arranging his materials, and presenting all the important and even the minute features of his subject, with the utmost apparent candor and fidelity. He has drawn largely from the letters, and a manuscript book of anecdotes and observations, noted down by Lord Eldon himself, in his latter years, for his grandson's use and amusement; which, of course, render the volumes all the more entertaining and instructive.

3.—*Flowers for Children.* By L. Maria Child, author of "The Mother's Book," etc. Part 1. For children eight or nine years old. New York: Charles S. Francis.

This admirable little volume contains eleven tales, poems, or sketches. Mrs. Child has no superior in this department of literature. The fascinating narrative is here made subservient to the purest principles of goodness and truth. A better book cannot well be put into the hands of children. The story of "The Christ Child" furnishes a series of beautiful and touching illustration of the power of love to subdue and conquer its opposite.

4.—*The Works of Rev. Sydney Smith.* 3 vols., 12mo. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

Sydney Smith has long been one of the most distinguished periodical writers of Great Britain. It appears that Lord Brougham, Jeffrey, Murray, and himself, originally projected that most solid and brilliant of all periodical Journals, the Edinburgh Review, and he was its first editor. The volumes whose title we have given, embrace the principal portion of his contributions to that work, during a long course of years, as well as a few sermons, letters, and occasional speeches; and they range through a great variety of topics. The most prominent features of his style appear to us, exact and various learning, clear and classic expression, and a caustic and sparkling vein of humor, that renders the most barren topic a fruitful field of thought, under his ready pen. Some of the early articles of the writer, touching our own country, are quite liberal; but we rejoice to know that, while others are not of the most amiable class, the nation has outgrown the sneers which formerly marked the Edinburgh Review in its commentaries upon our national character and institutions. The present work forms a part of Carey & Harts valuable series of British Miscellanies, embracing some of the ablest efforts of England.

5.—*The Poetical Works of Thomas Campell, complete.* With a Memoir of the Author by Washington Irving, and Remarks upon his Writings by Lord Jeffrey. With illustrations. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

A few months before the death of the poet Campbell, which took place last June, he superintended the publication of a complete collection of his poetical writings, which is here reproduced by the American publisher, with the addition of a memoir of the author, by Washington Irving, remarks on his genius, by Lord Jeffrey, and some additional notes by the Rev. Rufus Griswold. The general character of the author's poetical writings are well known on this side of the Atlantic, and anything we might say, as to their peculiar merits, would, therefore, be a work of supererogation. It may not, however, be so to state that the present edition is the most perfect extant, as indeed it is the most elegant published on this side of the Atlantic. The illustrations are perfect gems of the art.

6.—*Ethnology; or, the Philosophy of Mesmerism and Phrenology.* Including a New Philosophy of Sleep and Consciousness, with a Review of the pretensions of Neurology and Phreno-Magnetism. By J. Stanley Grimes, Counsellor at Law, Professor of Medical Jurisdrudence in the Castleton Medical College, and author of "A New System of Phrenology." New York: Saxton & Miles.

We have known the author of this work from our "mutual boyhood," and marked his untiring efforts at self-education, whilst contending with obstacles that would have disheartened a less determined and self-relying spirit. That he possesses a peculiar order of genius, and that he has added thereto varied and vast acquirements, require no other proof than an examination of his new system of phrenology, and the present remarkable work; and we are quite sure that he has not yet developed all the resources of his mind, but is destined to produce achievements in the wide circle of human investigation that will leave an impress on the path of science. Without, however, either assenting or dissenting from the theory of Professor Grimes, as we have not examined it sufficiently to entitle us to pursue such a course, we may be permited to remark that it is the product of an acute observer, and an ardent and earnest searcher after truth; and therefore contains much that will interest every candid mind.

7.—*Lorenzo; or, the Empire of Religion.* By a Scotch Non-Conformist, a Convert to the Catholic Faith. Translated from the French by a Lady of Philadelphia. Baltimore: John Murphy.

The author of this handsome miniature volume says that, "in embracing the Catholic religion, he comprehended full well its grandeur and sublimity, and how it inspires generous devotedness and heroic actions;" and he has certainly given free scope to the ardor of his imagination and to the liveliness of his thoughts and sentiments. Whatever we may think of the Catholic form of religion, all will agree with Lorenzo, that "the true Christian is an angel upon earth."

8.—*A Philosophical Inquiry into the Origin of Our Ideas of the Sublime and Beautiful. With an Introductory Discourse concerning Taste.* By the Rt. Hon. EDMUND BURKE. Adapted to Popular Use. By ABRAHAM MILLS, A. M., Professor of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Of the utility and the importance of this treatise, in forming the taste of the scholar, and giving a proper direction to his mind, there cannot be a doubt. It is, we believe universally admitted. But the admirers of Burke can scarcely conceive that "in the editions of the work hitherto published, there are some passages which violate that delicacy of expression that should peculiarly characterise the language of books designed for the use of schools;" although the statement is made by the learned professor, who has "carefully expunged, without interrupting, in the smallest degree, the chain of the author's reasoning." Mr. Mills has further "improved" the work by giving a free translation of the Latin and Greek quotations, and adding questions at the foot of each page.

9.—*Tales and Sketches. Second Series.* By the author of "Hope Leslie," "Home," "Letters from Abroad," etc., etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This little volume comprises a variety of tales and sketches, originally written for our magazines and annuals, during the last ten years. They inculcate, in an agreeable manner, those moral and intellectual lessons that impart to the writing of Miss Sedgwick a standard value. "Walter Harvey," the leading story in the collection, is based upon the circumstances of the great commercial speculation of 1835–36, and the revulsion that followed.

10—*The American House Carpenter; a Treatise upon Architecture, Cornices and Mouldings, Framing, Doors, Windows, and Stairs. Together with the most important Principles of Practical Geometry.* By R. G. HATFIELD, Architect. Illustrated by more than 300 engravings. 8vo., pp. 286. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

There is probably no department of the arts more interesting and useful than that of architecture, especially as connected with the construction of houses. The works heretofore published in this country, upon domestic architecture, and designed for practical use, have, however, been to expensive to be generally circulated, in consequence of the cost of the plates, and the bulky form in which they have been compiled. This work is designed to avoid those disadvantages. It is intended for carpenters—for masters, journeymen, and apprentices. It appears in so condensed a shape, it is so abundantly filled with diagrams illustrating the subject, and it is so concise and practical in its character, that we doubt not it will be widely purchased.

11.—*Hours of Mediation and Devotional Reflection, upon the Religious, Moral, and Social Duties of Life.* By HEINRICH ZSCHOKKE. Translated from the German. By JAMES D. HAAS. New York: J. S. Redfield.

Volumes of essays on important moral topics, developing human experience and practice, in their various aspects and obligations—animated, concise, and truthful, are among the most useful and acceptable books with which to enliven and edify the members of our households. Zschokke's "Hours of Mediation" are of this desirable class. He is a perspicuous observer of the world around, and of his own interior exercises; and his series of delightful and sprightly delineations, both didactic and historical, can be urgently commended to the perusal of all persons who would learn wisdom, and who would understand the most eligible methods of combining sterling knowledge with a life of usefulness and enjoyment.

12.—*Religious Lacon; or, Holy Thoughts.* Selected from various Authors. By the Rev. JOSEPH JONES, M. A., of New Church. New York: J. S. Redfield.

The work whose title we have given, presents some of the most striking passages from distinguished theological writers, calculated to influence the ordinary routine of every-day duty. It is published in a miniature form, but it is no less useful on that account; as it may thus exert beneficent influences where more bulky works could not find their way.

13.—*The History of the Reformation in Europe, with a Chronology of the Reformation.* By the author of "The Council of Trent." 18mo., pp. 242. London: The Religious Tract Society. New York: Robert Carter.

We here have, in a condensed form, a concise history of the progress of the Reformation throughout the various parts of Europe, commencing with the rise and progress of the corruptions of Christianity, and ending with a consideration of the results of the Reformation. Although the subject is treated briefly, the author embraces a wide circle of view, and gives us a general idea of the advance and influence of that reform which has impressed itself strongly upon the condition of mankind down to the present time.

14.—*Lectures on the Acts of Apostles.* By the late JOHN DICK, D. D., Professor of Theology of the United Secession Church, Glasgow, author of "Lectures on Theology," etc. 8vo., pp. 407. New York: Robert Carter.

These lectures were originally designed to illustrate the principal events in the history of the Church, from the ascension of Christ to the meeting of the Council of Jerusalem. The plan was afterwards extended, and the whole series is presented to us in a single well printed volume. The style of the author is clear and vigorous, and the various topics which he discusses are exhibited in an intelligible light. The work will probably be widely circulated.

15.—*Meditations and Contemplations.* By the Rev. JAMES HERVEY, A. M., late Rector of Weston Favell, Northamptonshire. Containing his Meditations among the Tombs, Reflections of a Flour Garden, etc. Two volumes in one. 18mo., pp. 295. New York: Robert Carter.

The well known meditations of Hervey are here given to the public in a compressed volume, that will serve to extend their popularity. They abound in religious sentiment, and are imbued with that poetic spirit which easliy finds its way to the soul. They can scarcely be read in the right temper, without exerting a salutary influence upon the conduct; and we need hardly add that the book is a most valuable and standard work.

16.—*Sabbath Musings.* By CAROLINE FRY, author of "Christ our Law," "Christ our Example," "The Listener," etc. 18mo., pp, 248. New York: Robert Carter.

It is the object of this little volume to present a series of topics for reflection, adapted to the Sabbath. From the familiar and simple style in which the sentiments are clothed, it is designed for the juvenile mind; yet it may be read by the mature with advantage. The doctrines put forth are illustrated by frequent reference to the holy Scripture, and appear in a very attractive garb.

17.—*My School-Boy Days.* 18mo., pp. 174. New York: Robert Carter.

The juvenile book, whose title we have quoted, is a fictitious narrative, exhibiting the ordinary incidents associated with the early days of boyhood, when the mind is first expanding, and the fresh feelings of youth are first opening under the salutary influence of school associations. Although it is addressed to youth, the scenes it portrays will recall the early incidents of school days, even to the aged.

18.—*The Old Sea-Captain.* By OLD HUMPHREY, author of "Old Humphrey's Observations," etc. 18mo, pp. 252. New York: Robert Carter.

The facts connected with sea life, in its various incidents and vicissitudes, are here sketched, in a fresh, off-hand, and racy style; such as we might naturally expect from an intelligent master of a vessel, on a recent return from a fortunate voyage, when his spirits were highly elated with his success. It is, from the familiarity of the style, mainly addressed to youth; and contains much practical information, in a characteristic form.

19.—*Thoughts Among Flowers.* London: The Religious Tract Society. New York: J. S. Redfield.

This microscopic little volume presents upon its pages an account of the peculiar characteristics of different flowers; and from those characteristics certain moral reflections are drawn, supported by reference to Scripture, and bearing upon every-day and practical life. It is illustrated with a few engravings, and constitutes a pretty and useful gift.

20.—*Notes on Cuba.* Containing an account of its discovery and early history; a description of the face of the country, its population, resources, and wealth; its institutions, and the manners and customs of its inhabitants, with directions to travellers visiting the island. By a PHYSICIAN. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

The direct commercial intercourse that we sustain with the island of Cuba, together with the local interest, connected with the peculiar circumstances of the island, render this volume of great value to the public of our own country. It has been prepared by an individual who has resided upon it, examined its actual condition, and made himself conversant with the character of the people, the resources of the soil, and the statistics of its domestic production and foreign trade. Besides the information given to us upon those subjects, we have in its pages graphic descriptions of social life, historic data, and narratives of journeys made from point to point, which add much to the interest of the volume. It is, upon the whole, a condensed, and we doubt not, authentic account of the island, that will be of substantial utility to those who are interested in the condition and prosperity of its population, as well as the island itself, as a field for commercial enterprise.

21.—*Hewett's Illuminated and Illustrated Shakspeare.* Edited by GULIAN C. VERPLANCK. New York: H. W. Hewett.

Shakspeare has been pronounced, by uniform consent, the greatest dramatist that the world has produced. His works belong to all nations and to all future ages. He has disclosed the springs of the human soul, and the motives of human action, in such a form, and has invested them with such colors, as to evoke the admiration of mankind. We shall possess, in this edition of his dramas, which is now in the progress of publication, in successive numbers, a volume worthy of the reputation of the author. It is edited by one of our purest and most elegant scholars, printed on beautiful paper, and abundantly illustrated with well executed engravings. We sincerely hope that the publisher may reap an ample reward from the public, for his laudable enterprise. The judicious and classical comments of scholars upon the topics of the various dramas, and the embellishments of the volume by finished engravings, if they add to the cost, increase also its solid value.

22.—*History of the French Revolution, its Causes and Consequences.* By F. MACLEAN ROWAN. 2 volumes. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Commencing with a brief outline of the early history of France, the author, thoroughly familiar with the subject, traces with a graphic pen the events that marked the bloody revolution in France, to the establishment of regular government. In the present work, the faults of the people are more insisted upon than those of the rulers; because, says Mr. Rowan, it is written for the former, not for the latter, and because, if the latter have a lesson to learn from history, the former have a still greater one, and one that, if well learned by them, will suffice for both. Compiled with care and judgment, essentially popular in its style, clear and methodical in its arrangements, it forms at once a comprehensive and succinct history of the French revolution.

23.—*The Poets of Connecticut.* Edited by Rev. CHARLES W. EVEREST. 8vo., pp. 468. Hartford: Case, Tiffany & Burnham.

Connecticut, with its small territorial limits, has produced a greater number of brilliant poets, probably, than any other State of the Union. Many of those whose poetical effusions are here embodied, had not a very wide reputation; yet there are not a few whose names are known in every part of their native land, and have been wafted across the Atlantic. The present collection contains a selection of the most popular pieces of the poets of Connecticut, and brief biographical sketches. It will circulate among those who are fond of poetry in general, as well as those who are especially interested in the poets of the State whose best efforts are here given to the public.

24.—*The Language of Love, with Hints on Courtship.* New York: J. S. Redfield.

A subject in which all are interested at some period of life, is treated in this miniature volume in a manner suited to so important a matter.

25.—*European Agriculture and Political Economy, from Personal Observation.* By Henry Colman, of the United States of America. Vol. I. London: Joseph Rogerson. Boston: A. D. Phelps. 8vo., pp. 80.

This is the first part of a work to be completed in ten numbers, designed to improve the agricultural interests of our own country. It will present a description of the actual condition of agriculture in England, which is doubtless in a very perfect state, and thus furnish information for the improvement of that most important interest with us. The mode in which the author has executed the first part of his task, is worthy of all approval. His observations are pertinent and judicious, and he has conveyed them in a condensed, pure, and classical style, which will conduce to their solid value.

26.—*Family Pride; or, the Palace and the Poor-House.* A romance of real life.
27.—*The Ruined Gamester; or, Two Eras of My Life.* A historical romance.
28.—*Pride or Principle—which Makes the Lady?* Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blackstone.

Here are three American tales, inculcating, as we might infer from their titles, those lessons of every-day virtue, if we may be allowed the expression, so important in the conduct of social and domestic life. The evils of gaming, and the false positions that pride necessarily causes us to assume, frequently in opposition to correct principles, are depicted with a fidelity that cannot fail of arresting the attention of the most casual reader.

29.—*Love Gift for* 1845. Boston: Saxton, Pierce & Co.

"The Love Gift" consists of the "poetry of love," collected from the poets of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries. There are in the volume pieces from about eighty different writers, the names of which are given in the index, with the time of their birth and death. The volume is richly bound in gold gilt and printed on snow-white paper, emblematical of the sentiment it celebrates in its impassioned numbers.

30.—*The Mourner's Chaplet; an Offering of Sympathy for Beloved Friends.* Selected from American poets. By John Keese. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

The bereaved heart will appreciate the sentiments that induced this compilation of consolatory verse. The sad experience of the author, in the melancholy fate of a beloved son, combined with a pure and refined taste, lend a charm to the volume, and impart to it an interest that kindred hearts will respond to.

31.—*Simmonds' Colonial Magazine and Foreign Miscellany.* Edited by P. L. Simmonds, Esq., F. L. S., etc. London: Simmonds & Clowes.

The December number of this ably conducted work is, as usual, replete with articles of value and interest, not only to the British colonist, but to those who would acquire recent and accurate information of every quarter of the globe. We consider this the most useful and important work that reaches us from the other side of the Atlantic.

32.—*No Church without a Bishop; or, the Controversy between the Rev. Drs. Potts and Wainwright.* With a preface by the latter, and an introduction and notes. By an Anti-Sectarian. 8vo., pp. 176. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The pamphlet whose title we have given, embraces the discussion between two eminent divines, upon the organization of the Episcopal church, which, it is well-known recently attracted, in a great degree, the public attention. Without entering into any expression of opinion regarding the merits of the controversy, we would remark that its publication in a collective form was desirable, in order that the public may judge of the points in issue, and the ability, as well as the mode, in which the controversy was conducted.

33.—*A Materia Medica Botanica.* Containing the Botanical Description, Natural History, and Chemical and Medical Properties of Plants, illustrated by colored engravings of original drawings, taken from nature. By Peter P. Good, A. M., and A. B. Strong, M. D., Botanists, New York. [A serial, four numbers of which are before us, each containing a handsomely executed engraving of some plant, colored after nature, and accompanied with a botanical description, natural history, and its chemical and medical properties. Mr. Good is a near kinsman of the late Dr. Good, author of the "Book of Nature, and was brought up under his tuition. With the manuscripts of that distinguished physician and naturalist, and the rare facilities for the preparation of such a work thus enjoyed, joined to his own cultivated taste, renders the present volume an extremely valuable contribution to botanical science.]